April 1953

The Personnel and Guidance Journal

SUCCESSOR TO *Occupations*

THE PERSONNEL AND GUIDANCE JOURNAL

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more about the authors

SALVATORE G. DIMICHAEL is completing his second year as President of the D. C. Guidance and Personnel Association, and is ready to hand over the gavel. . . . THOMAS A. GOODRICH has been coordinator of the Counseling Clinics at Michigan State and has worked continuously with them since they were initiated in 1949 . . . WESLEY VORDENBERG has been at Florida State University since 1949. Prior to taking his present job he served as Acting Director of Vocational Guidance and Placement . . . NORMAN LOWENSTEIN has recently completed some research in the area of teen-age problems, the results will appear in the Summer issue of the *Vocational Guidance Quarterly*. ROBERT HOPPOCK and he conducted a survey in 1951 similar to the one described in the current article . . . WILLIAM C. COTTLE has completed a monograph reviewing the research on the Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory from 1940–1950 . . . Another article by PETER P. HALE on "Defining Vocational Counseling and Vocational Guidance" appeared in the December, 1952, JOURNAL . . . HAROLD F. COTTINGHAM is now working on a research study dealing with practices in elementary school guidance . . . HARRY BEILIN came to the University of Connecticut from Columbia Teachers College where he was a research assistant with the Career Pattern Study . . . GEORGE WEIGAND is working toward enlargement and improvement of the probational student program at Maryland University . . . CLIFFORD FROEHLICH is co-author of a new book, *Studying Students, Guidance Methods of Individual Analysis* . . . FRANK G. DAVIS came to Texas from Bucknell where he was head of the Department of Education . . . KATE HEVNER MUELLER is another repeater in the JOURNAL this year. Her "Training for Citizenship through Student Activities" appeared in December . . . As psychologist-in-chief, University Hospitals, W. L. WILKINS is particularly qualified to review the materials he does in this issue.

The

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Transmitted by Max F. Baer

INDUSTRIAL RESEARCH PERSONNEL

New report: In middle of last year Research and Development Board, Department of Defense, made survey of personnel in industrial research and development. Branch of Occupational Studies, Bureau of Labor Statistics, has prepared report of this study.

Heavy cost: National outlay for scientific research and development totaled more than 3.5 billion dollars in 1952. This was four times yearly expenditure at beginning of World War II. Two-thirds of this tremendous sum was for work done in labs and other facilities owned or operated by private industry. Almost one-fourth was for research and development carried out by Uncle Sam in his own labs, and remainder was for work done by colleges and universities. Close to half of research done by private industry was paid for by Federal Government—almost all of it by Department of Defense and Atomic Energy Commission.

Number of engineers and scientists: Almost 2,000 concerns participating in this survey, employed almost 94,000 research engineers and scientists. More than half were working for companies in three industry groups—electrical machinery, aircraft, and chemicals. Here is partial industry distribution of personnel: Aircraft and parts, 20,166; electrical machinery, 17,243; chemicals and allied products, 13,181; professional, scientific, and controlling instruments, 5,694; machinery (except electrical), 5,333; petroleum refining, 4,953; commercial consulting services, 3,391; non-profit research agencies, 2,518; fabricated metal products, 2,491; primary metal industries, 1,703; food and kindred products, 1,357; stone, clay, and glass products, 1,210. One per cent of companies in this study hired more than a third of the personnel.

Supporting personnel: Professional engineers and scientists are assisted by draftsmen, engineering aides, other technicians, and highly skilled craftsmen. They also rely upon clerical, administrative, and maintenance personnel. Companies in this study employed about 140,000 supporting workers, or average of 1.5 supporting worker for every 1 professional engineer and scientist.

Personnel turnover: Number of research engineers and scientists who left reporting companies during 1951 averaged 16.4 per 100 employed at end of year. Among industries turnover ranged from 8.8 in petroleum refining to 28.0 in non-profit research agencies. Call-ups for military service caused less than a fifth of all separations.

LABOR MOBILITY

Pioneering report: Scripps Foundation for Research in Population Problems (Miami University, Oxford, Ohio) has published valuable report on labor mobility. Data are based on social security records of Federal Government. Covered employees of Michigan and Ohio in 1947 were guinea pigs. Total mobility, as defined for this study, consists of (1) change of county of employment (migration), (2) change of industry of employment, and (3) change of employer.

Volume of mobility: During 1947 one-third of all covered workers were mobile in one of these three ways. Movement between counties constituted one-half of total mobility. An amazingly high percentage of worker mobility involved change of industry as well as change of employer. Only 15 per cent remained within same industry. Of those workers who moved to another county, more than 90 per cent also switched employers and industry. Workers in non-metropolitan areas were more migratory but less locally industry-mobile and less employer-mobile than workers in metropolitan areas.

In relation to sex: Male workers were about 25 per cent more mobile than female workers. This difference was due entirely to greater tendency of males to migrate, for males and females appeared to be about equally industry-mobile and employer-mobile in local areas.

In relation to race: Negro workers were about 21 per cent more mobile than non-Negro workers. This was due entirely to the higher mobility of Negro males. Female Negro workers were slightly less mobile than female non-Negroes because of a lesser tendency to migrate. Male Negro workers were more migratory, more industry-mobile, and more employer-mobile than female Negroes and non-Negroes of both sexes.

In relation to age: Total mobility was highest at ages under 25 years. Beyond this age mobility declined rapidly and steadily with increasing age. This was true of both males and females in both metropolitan and non-metropolitan areas. As a whole, workers 60 years of age or older were only about one-third as mobile as those in their early twenties. Of the three types of labor mobility, industry-mobility within same county varied more between youth and old age than did other two types. Migration was also greatly affected by age. But employer-mobility appeared to be comparatively constant with age.

VOCATIONAL REHABILITATION *for the mentally retarded*

THOSE OF US WHO are concerned with the vocational rehabilitation of the mentally and physically handicapped know well the resistance of employers in accepting disabled workers who are well prepared for suitable jobs. We also know the adverse attitudes of society, and even the lack of confidence shown by the handicapped themselves who unwittingly imbibe the negative atmosphere. Unfortunately, we also see the same philosophy of negation in the ranks of professional people—counselors, physicians, psychologists, social workers, educators, lawyers, and others—who advise parents and the handicapped that a life of productiveness and social contribution is not possible and that the handicapped should be sent to the sidelines.

One of the biggest barriers to more effective rehabilitation is the conglomeration of falsehoods, half truths, prejudices, and fears which grips the social atmosphere. It is our own creation and a sort of self-imposed prison of thought and action. Like all psychological barriers, it is one which must be broken by society itself. In this re-educational process, counselors should play a prominent role in implanting a philosophy of positive action for the handicapped.

Of course, not all people are shackled by varying feelings of hopelessness for the disabled. Considerable strides have been made, particularly during the last ten years, in rehabilitating the disabled to a life of productiveness. The number of enlightened employers is constantly increasing as they have learned that well-prepared and trained handicapped persons perform creditably on jobs for which they are suited. Professional people are learning of the techniques of restoration and are becoming more "team-minded" in their approach. The physician cannot regard his job completed when his client leaves his office or hospital, nor can the psychologist make his examinations and call for the next case, nor can the educator graduate his student and lose sight of him, nor can the counselor solve the problems of the client by referral to the social worker for public assistance. All must work together until the handicapped person is restored to his fullest degree of personal, social, and vocational productiveness.

For the mentally retarded, the same kinds of problems and doubts are present. The parents experience a hard emotional blow in finding that their child is unusually slow in learning and general development. Many recommendations are made to them with a frequent experience of confusion, mixed up with alternating periods of hope and despair. The result is that many children with potentialities for a life of limited but positive contribution are hampered by parental doubts. When the mentally retarded adolescent and adult come to the vocational rehabilitation counselor, some parents are afraid to train their children in a life of greater independence. Unquestionably, significant progress is being made in getting many mentally retarded persons into jobs, persons who formerly were not regarded as employable. To accomplish this goal we need to establish more effective professional services with increasing emphasis on special education for children, occupational training for adolescents and adults, and progressive counseling which is really a process rather than a one-time contact.

The rehabilitation of the mentally retarded is not something which has happened

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by

SALVATORE G. DiMICHAEL

only within the last ten years. Well-versed and enterprising professional workers in the field have been aware of the possibilities of rehabilitation for a considerable time. It must be admitted, however, that there was a time, not long ago, that even the authorities in the field of mental deficiency regarded rehabilitation as hopeless. The venerable pioneer, Dr. Fernald, admitted in 1919 that he too had regarded the rehabilitation program as an impossibility for this group, and that he had changed his mind in the face of the evidence.

Many subsequent studies have demonstrated that a surprising number of the mentally retarded are employed in unskilled and semi-skilled jobs. For a full documentation reference may be made to the book on *Vocational Rehabilitation of the Mentally Retarded*, particularly Chapter 6 written by Anna Engle on "Employment of the Mentally Retarded."[1] Probably one of the important factors which has kept professional people from realizing the potentialities of the mentally retarded is the widespread use of an IQ of 70 as a dividing line for the so-called feeble-minded. But specialists know that the greater majority of persons with IQ's below 70 have potentialities to become satisfactorily employed if they are properly trained and given a variety of professional assistance, including counseling.

Program of Vocational Rehabilitation

One of the relatively new organized programs working in behalf of the mentally retarded is the State-Federal program of vocational rehabilitation. This program has been in existence since 1920 and served the physically handicapped until major amendments to the Federal legislation were adopted in 1943. One major amendment was the inclusion of the mentally handicapped, that is, the emotionally disabled and the mentally retarded. Varied services now are offered under the program to the mentally retarded.

This phase of the program is relatively new and services to the mentally handicapped have not as yet been established on a thorough basis in the program. In 1949 the Federal Office of Vocational Rehabilitation realized that one of the most serious blocks was the lack of knowledge about the problems and rehabilitation procedures for the mentally retarded. As a result, the Office sought the cooperation of the American Association on Mental Deficiency and produced the book on *Vocational Rehabilitation of the Mentally Retarded*. Subsequently, State rehabilitation agencies have taken a number of steps to train counselors and have made profitable use of the book as a training device.

The record of the State-Federal rehabilitation program to date, in behalf of the mentally retarded, may not be regarded as highly impressive but it represents a positive beginning. From 1945 to 1951, approximately 4,000 mentally retarded persons were rehabilitated into employment. The number has been steadily increasing with each passing year. According to the latest figures for any one year, 592 were rehabilitated during 1951. Of these, 94 per cent were unemployed when accepted for rehabilitation, 37 per cent had never worked, 81 per cent were depending on their families, and 6 per cent were on relief. The average client had only seven years of schooling and was 19 years of age at the time of acceptance. Before rehabilitation, the group earned approximately $35,900 annually while after rehabilitation the esti-

[1] Salvatore G. DiMichael (Ed.), *Vocational Rehabilitation of the Mentally Retarded*. Reprinted in *American Journal of Mental Deficiency*, LVII (October, 1952), 169–337.

The team approach works, the experts find.

mated annual earnings were $922,400, that is, nearly 26 times the total annual earnings before rehabilitation. The jobs after rehabilitation were almost entirely on the unskilled or semi-skilled levels but they represent a positive contribution to the manpower production of the country.

How Vocational Rehabilitation Works

Since the earliest that vocational rehabilitation can accept a client is at the age of 14 or 15, we are tremendously concerned about the preparation of the individual in childhood and adolescence. The rehabilitation team cannot, within a short space of time, re-make individuals who have been neglected or maladjusted during the important formative years. The program recognizes the vital role of such agencies as the medical clinic, special education, residential schools, associations for parents, and the correlated professional services of physicians, psychologists, social workers, educators, and others. These services must be improved and expanded to increase the effectiveness of vocational rehabilitation wherever it is done. Although this point needs to be stressed, it cannot be dwelt upon at greater length because this article is concerned with the adolescent and adult mentally retarded.

A firm basis for the initiation of a program of rehabilitation for the individual is a careful diagnostic, medical, psychological, and social study. From an understanding of the facts about the individual's problems, it is then possible to build a program with reasonable assurance of success. For each client, a general medical examination is obtained and other specialists examinations as required. A psychological examination is made to evaluate the potentialities, capacities, and personality. The counselor also plays a part in the diagnostic workup by obtaining data on the family, community, educational, and vocational history. Although these facts enable the counselor to determine the eligibility of the client, their importance is far greater in terms of the vocational diagnosis and rehabilitation prognosis which are formulated.

A study completed recently in the Office of Vocational Rehabilitation threw some light on the ways in which rehabilitation works.[2] One of the main findings demonstrated the role of vocational and personal counseling. It was found that the counselors had to spend a considerable amount of time in helping clients select realistic job objectives and in helping them to solve the concrete problems of daily living which hampered them from obtaining employment. Counseling with the mentally retarded involves the mutual discussion of troublesome personal problems. Since the mentally retarded do not have the full capacity to plan ahead and to see in full perspective the outcomes of their actions, the counselor must deal with the problems in a concrete and patient manner.

Another finding in the same study showed that considerable time and energy had to be spent in interviews with parents. The family problems involved such matters as over-protection, fear of having the individual travel and work on his own, and convincing parents of the realism of the vocational plan. In a number of instances the parents continued to hope that the retarded individual would be able to be trained and placed on skilled and semi-skilled jobs for which his capacities were not suited. On the other hand, it was found that many families could be relied upon for unusual cooperation with the result that rehabilitation was done much more effectively and quickly.

One of the somewhat unexpected highlights of the study was evidence of the great need for occupational training. In the sample study, approximately 50 per cent of the retarded were provided with vocational training. The most frequent type was on-the-job training. This probably is due to the fact that training resources for retarded adults are not established in the community under a trained educational staff. Another reason for this fairly high number of clients who needed occupational training may be

[2] S. G. DiMichael and W. B. Terwilliger, *Counselors' Activities in the Vocational Rehabilitation of the Mentally Retarded*, Office of Vocational Rehabilitation, Federal Security Agency, Washington 25, D. C., 1952.

that the retarded respond better to an actual work situation. Training was also obtained in the schools, through residential institutions, and tutorial arrangements.

Professional workers in general are not aware of the great need for occupational training among the mentally retarded. Highly intelligent people have been made to think that unskilled and semi-skilled jobs are routine and require very little training. Actually such jobs are as complex and difficult to learn for the mentally retarded as are skilled jobs for persons of average intelligence. It seems necessary for us to become much more aware of the need for longer, more competent, and patient training than is presently conceived among workers for the mentally retarded.

The study also disclosed that a small number of clients were not prepared to take occupational training until they had been given more fundamental preparation. This preparation is called personal adjustment training, a term which refers to such things as teaching the individual to take care of his personal needs, to travel alone, to know the skills of social inter-action, and to develop specific habits that are required in employment such as promptness, neatness, ability to take supervision, to work under pressure, and to make sustained efforts to produce the assigned work. Unless such habits are ingrained in the individual, we cannot expect that occupational training alone will be sufficient for meeting the demands of the jobs.

Another available service under the rehabilitation program is medical restoration. It has been our experience so far that a fair percentage of the mentally retarded require medical surgery and treatment for accompanying disabilities. However, even though the percentage of clients who receive these services are not as high as those receiving training, nevertheless, medical restoration is essential to the rehabilitation plan whenever it is required. The more we can correct, diminish, or cure secondary disabilities accompanying mental retardation, the greater is the individual's chances of becoming employed. Sometimes the services may take the form of major surgery, sometimes psychotherapy, artificial limbs, and training in their use, etc.; on the other hand, we unfortunately find that some clients have a need for glasses or dental work which should have been provided many years ago.

The counselor is always obliged to assist the client in seeking employment in a job for which he is suited. In some cases this assignment may be made more difficult by the presence of marginal abilities or multiple handicaps. Such a situation requires that greater time and energy be devoted to the job-seeking phase. One of the factors which make vocational rehabilitation work is the application of the principle that the job and the person must be desirably matched. In order to accomplish this, it sometimes is necessary to contact many employers and to make many job analyses.

In the minds of the average professional person, jobs at the unskilled or semi-skilled levels are very few in variety. Since these workers are unacquainted with the world of work, they are unaware of the tremendous varieties and types of jobs in the lower levels of the occupational hierarchy. In the sample study on the mentally retarded, it was found that 97 cases were placed in 69 different kinds of work. The findings presented a wholesome picture. In the first place the counselors are not restricting the opportunities of the members of this handicapped group to a few routine job channels; secondly, the data indicated that the mentally retarded have wide job potentialities even though they work in unskilled and semi-skilled occupations.

In a study made in early 1951, Peckham demonstrated that one of the serious problems confronting the mentally retarded employee is the attitudes of his fellow workers.[8] A frequent reason for difficulty on the job related to the ridicule and "nagging" to which the retarded person was subjected. The problems arising from this condition were solved in different ways. In some instances the counselor was able to help the client make an effective plan to combat the

[8] Ralf A. Peckham, "Problems in Job Adjustment of the Mentally Retarded," *American Journal of Mental Deficiency*, LVI (October, 1951), pp. 448–453.

ridicule; in other cases the employer or supervisor was able to control the situation once it was brought to his attention; and in other cases the counselor was able to talk with the other employees and to obtain their cooperation.

The placement of the client on the job is not a terminal point in rehabilitation but another step toward the goal of personal-social-economic adjustment. Placement is followed by the climax of the rehabilitation process, namely, the follow-up. The crucial nature of the follow-up in the adjustment of the client is well illustrated by Rockower and Potts in their chapters of the book on *Vocational Rehabilitation of the Mentally Retarded.*[4] In the study previously referred to, DiMichael and Terwilliger found that the rehabilitation counselors were making up to 13 follow-up visits on any one case to help the individual acclimate himself to the demands of the job. These visits serve many purposes: for instance, to give the client extra training assistance in learning the duties of the job satisfactorily. In some instances it was necessary to arrange for room and board after working hours and to plan for recreational time.

Vocational rehabilitation does not, and cannot, pretend to be a self-contained program. It must work in close cooperation with other community agencies as part of a total rehabilitation plan directed by the community as a whole. No counselor should lose sight of the need for teamwork, not only by professional workers but by all the community agencies working in effective partnership with the family and the client.

When the facts are widely known from studies such as those mentioned in this paper, the current social attitude of "hopelessness" will change to "realistic hopefulness." And with it will come less prejudice, less thoughtless inhumanity, more confidence for parents, happier and productive handicapped citizens, and integrated constructive forces to cope with and diminish the difficulties of the physically and mentally handicapped.

[4] DiMichael (Ed.), *op. cit.*, Chapters 7 and 8.

THE CHILD IS *THE EXPERIENCE*

The important notion . . . is that the child is not a unit number in series to be filed under D for Dunce or A for Alert and Aggressive. Nor is he a cask to be filled arbitrarily with information of someone else's choosing. Nor yet is he a fishworm on an academic hook to be cast out into first this pool of activity and then that, and be drawn back on the scholastic reel each time with irritated surprise that he hasn't hooked a fish of experience. The child *is* the experience. The child is himself and nobody and nothing else. He gets out of his activities only what he himself is able to add to himself.—Ray Montgomery in January *Phi Delta Kappan.*

Everyone can be creative to some degree in many ways.—J. P. Guilford in Fall *Training Analysis and Development.*

Gains in Self-Understanding through

Pre-College Clinics

by THOMAS A. GOODRICH

IT IS GENERALLY recognized that "bridging the gap" between high school and college is difficult for most young people. Since the first World War there has been a significant growth in organized effort to find a satisfactory solution to this problem. Orientation activities in one form or another comprised the method most often used by universities and colleges to help incoming freshmen adjust to college life with the greatest possible degree of ease and balance. Much experimentation has been carried out, using different techniques, since the seriousness of the problem has been recognized.

As a step toward this facilitating of the transition of incoming freshmen from high school to college, Michigan State College in the summer of 1949 inaugurated three experimental summer counseling clinics administered through the Counseling Center. These clinics were directed primarily to those high school graduates who were planning to enroll at Michigan State College in the fall term of that same year. The program for that summer is described in an article by Ross W. Matteson [*1*].

These clinics, and the subsequent ones since 1949, provide an opportunity for recent high school graduates to seek the aid of professional counselors in a brief but intensive attack on some of the educational and vocational problems which they face. Graduates are brought to the campus for a period of orientation, testing, and counseling to help them determine their interests and aptitudes and to introduce them to campus life. They have an excellent opportunity to make new friends before college starts in the fall. Organized tours of the campus and buildings, question periods, observation of dormitory living, introduction to college songs and the use of college recreation facilities all help acquaint the prospective students with Michigan State College. Selection of fall term courses and much of the work of enrollment is completed at the clinics.

In 1950 the program was expanded to include nine, in 1951 ten, and in 1952 eleven clinics. Tentative plans for 1953 call for an even larger scale of operation. Attendance has jumped from 226 in 1949 to 366 in 1950 to 635 in 1951 and to 1,025 in 1952.

Announcements of the program are forwarded to high school graduates who have been accepted by the Basic College. The brochure explains all the main details of the three-day sessions. The participants have an intensive schedule. The first day includes registration, meeting with counselors testing, campus tour, luncheons, and evening activities. The evening session features M.S.C. songs, speeches, movies, and a get-together party. The second day is devoted to orientation activities such as medical examinations, swimming tests, talks on problems one faces in going to college, counseling interviews, and special testing. The second evening features informal discussions on dormitory living, procedures for registration, and movies. The third day involves speech and hearing tests, meetings with school representatives, counseling interviews, and filling out evaluation questionnaires.

Michigan State College bridges the gap between high school and college

THOMAS A. GOODRICH is a Counselor at Michigan State College.

In order to determine what results the participants were receiving an investigation was made of changes evidenced by clients while attending a clinic. Following a pilot study in the summer of 1950, the author made a study of the 1951 clinics. An attempt was made to measure changes in the following areas:

1. Self-understanding—knowing one's assets and liabilities.
2. Decisions on educational-vocational goals.
3. Orientation information concerning college.

In addition a brief follow-up study was made of the clients during their first term in school to see how well they had adjusted to college.

A pre-clinic survey blank was given to each of the 635 clients during the first morning of the respective clinics in which they participated. On the third day, following the final interview, they were given the final questionnaire. This post-clinic survey blank included an evaluation sheet for the client's reaction to the entire program. From this group, 200 clients for the study were selected by random sampling.

The author wanted to study changes in self-understanding on the part of the client in relationship to his scores on certain psychological tests used in the program. These tests were:

1. A.C.E. Psychological Examination: 1949 edition.
2. Cooperative English Test C2: Reading Comprehension.
3. Iowa High School Content Examination: Form L.
4. Kuder Preference Record: Form CM.

The instrument used for measuring changes in self-understanding was a modification of the Test of Self-Understanding used by Paul L. Dressel and Ross W. Matteson [2] for a research project carried on by the Michigan State College Counseling Center in the winter of 1949. The client indicated on the test how he felt about his number and word ability, his capacity for college work, his general reading skill, his general level of reading, his three highest vocational interest areas, his three lowest vocational interest areas, his general understanding and achievement in school courses, and his relative knowledge in English, mathematics, science, history, and social studies before he took the tests of the counseling battery. After the tests had been given and the results interpreted by a counselor, the counselee again received the questionnaire which contained the Test of Self-Understanding. This test was given to the client by the clinic coordinator at the end of the three-day session. It was scored by comparing pre- and post-clinic questionnaire responses with actual test results. The difference between these scores was used to measure the increases in self-understanding. Some typical examples of items from the revised Test of Self-Understanding follow:

Thinking in terms of *numbers* and thinking in terms of *words* are important and rather different abilities. My own abilities in this regard are:

—— (a) about equal
—— (b) considerably stronger in numbers
—— (c) considerably stronger in words
—— (d) unknown to me

In comparison with other students, my capacity for college work is:

—— (a) about average
—— (b) above average
—— (c) below average
—— (d) unknown to me

Compared with other students, my reading skill is:

—— (a) weakest in vocabulary
—— (b) weakest in speed of reading
—— (c) weakest in comprehension
—— (d) about equal in all three
—— (e) uncertain about my relative strength in (a), (b), (c)

Statistical analysis of changes in self-understanding revealed that clinic participants evidenced significant gains in five of the eight areas measured. These five areas in which greater self-understanding was revealed were:

1. Their relative quantitative and linguistic ability as compared with the A.C.E. Psychological Examination.

2. Their own evaluation of their capacity to do college work as compared with the A.C.E. Psychological Examination.
3. Their reading skill as compared with the Cooperative English Test C2: Reading Comprehension.
4. Their relative rank in vocabulary, speed of reading, and rate of reading as compared with the Cooperative English Test C2: Reading Comprehension.
5. Their high school achievement as measured by the Iowa High School Content Examination.

There was also some gain in self-understanding indicated in the remaining areas studied. Although these gains in the remaining areas could not be said to be statistically significant, the trend in the form of gain was consistent. These three areas in which some gain in self-understanding was revealed were:

1. Their three highest interested areas stated as compared with the Kuder Preference Record.
2. Their three lowest interest areas stated as compared with the Kuder Preference Record.
3. Their relative rank stated in English, mathematics, science, and social studies as compared with the Iowa High School Content Examination.

On the pre-test the "high ability" group—those people who scored in the eighth, ninth, or tenth decile on the A.C.E. Psychological Examination—possessed better self-understanding of their capacity for academic training and their reading skills than the "low ability" group—those people who scored on the first, second, or third decile of the A.C.E. Both groups made statistically significant gains while attending the clinic. In general, the highest percentage of gain was made by the "low ability" group but their final self-understanding scores did not approach those of the "high ability" group. It must be recognized, however, that the latter showed much stronger initial self-understanding than the former did; consequently its chances for additional gain would be much smaller. The study also revealed that clients were willing to admit weaknesses in reading but were much more reluctant to admit weaknesses in regard to their capacity for college work.

The distribution of clinic participants on each decile of the A.C.E. Psychological Examination, Cooperative English Test C2: Reading Comprehension, and the Iowa High School Content Examination are shown in TABLE 1.

TABLE 1

Distribution of Clients on Each Decile of the A.C.E. Psychological Examination, Cooperative English Test C2: Reading Comprehension and the Iowa High School Content Examination

	Number of Students in Each Decile (Based on General M.S.C. Freshmen Norms)		
Decile Rank	*A.C.E. Psychological*	*Cooperative Reading*	*Iowa Content*
10	15	18	13
9	19	16	22
8	17	17	30
7	28	20	18
6	20	15	19
5	15	27	23
4	29	20	22
3	20	23	11
2	18	19	18
1	19	25	24
TOTALS	200	200	200
	$\chi^2 = 10.5$	$\chi^2 = 6.9$	$\chi^2 = 13.6$
	$P = 0.31^{+ext}$	$P = 0.61^{+ext}$	$P = 0.4^{+ext}$

A study of the preceding table reveals that of the 200 clients used in the sample 49.5 per cent were above the median score for Michigan State College freshmen on the A.C.E. Psychological Examination; 43.0 per cent were above the median on the Cooperative English Test C2: Reading Comprehension; and 51.0 per cent were above the median on the Iowa High School Content Examination. Statistical analysis of the results showed no evidence to indicate that the distribution of scores varied from those made by other fall term admission freshmen. It could therefore be assumed that these two groups were comparable with respect to general ability to do college work, reading ability, and academic achievement as measured by these tests. Comparisons of

age, sex, economic status, and high school grades gave no evidence of their differing essentially in such factors as compared with non-clinic participants. Except for motivation, which is extremely difficult to measure, the people who attended the clinics appeared to be typical Michigan State College freshmen. This is called to the attention of the reader so that he will not feel the clinic enrollee is radically different from the non-clinic Michigan State College first term student.

One of the reasons many clients came to the clinic was a desire for vocational help. Each applicant indicated a vocational preference prior to the clinic unless he was in no-preference.[1] About 20 per cent of the participants changed their choice of college major while they were at the clinic. About one-half of these changes were from a regular college major to no-preference; about one-quarter were from one college major to another college major, and approximately one-quarter changed from no-preference to a definite college major. The majority of the clients who changed to no-preference continued at least one exploratory subject in the field of their original choice. This slight increase in the number of no-preference students was not quite what was anticipated. As already indicated, many clients who had come to the clinic with a no-preference choice did make a definite and satisfactory choice as a result of their three-day experience. On the other hand, many participants who had indicated a definite major found that the clinic experience raised doubts in their minds and they changed to no-preference. It will be interesting to see if these same people make fewer vocational changes over a period of time than do Michigan State College non-clinic freshmen who do not begin to question their college majors until they have been on the campus for one, two, or three terms. It would be reasonable to assume that both the student and the college would gain by having vocational doubts realized and resolved early since irregular programs are usually a source of difficulty. The fact that clinic participants do discuss their vocational future and make changes indicates that some self-evaluation and understanding is taking place. Further information regarding no-preference students and counseling clinics is described in an article by Paul L. Dressel [3].

Evidence compiled in the research indicated the counseling clinic people had obtained much orientation information concerning college. They had gained knowledge concerning the services of the Counseling Center. They were acquainted with dormitory living and had acquired considerable knowledge about student government. They knew Michigan State College songs. They knew the general procedure for enrollment and registration. They were a relaxed group at the end of the three-day period. This was in sharp contrast to tenseness displayed by many clients the first day on the campus. Evidence that they felt they had benefitted is shown in Table 2.

TABLE 2

Clients Reaction to Counseling Clinics

Degree of Satisfaction	*Frequency*	*Per Cent*
It was extremely helpful	142	71.0
It helped a great deal	53	26.5
It was satisfactory	5	2.5
It helped very little	0	0.0
It was of no value	0	0.0
TOTAL	200	100.0

It is significant to notice that none of the clients felt the experience helped very little or was of no value. While the competence of the participants to pass judgment on this matter is questionable, the inclusion of such an item in the questionnaire does give them a chance to express their reactions to the clinic. Interviews with each of the counselees gave the impression that this feeling of gratification was based on underlying emotional satisfaction.

The General evaluation statements by the students were quite uniformly favorable to

[1] This category was set up by the Basic College to designate students who had no vocational choice but who would decide upon a major before entering an Upper School.

the clinic program. A few typical examples follow:

> I feel the clinic has helped me to the extent that I feel almost like a college student already. It has put the full picture of college life before me along with my abilities to compete in the college program.
>
> I felt the clinics were helpful in getting me over the fright of college life.
>
> I am very satisfied with the clinic and feel you couldn't find a better counseling staff. They are always friendly which means a lot when you don't know anyone when first coming. Some of the things I especially liked were: the wearing of name tags, a counselor meeting you at the door the first day, group singing and the wonderful way the square dance helped to get everyone acquainted.

At the conclusion of the fall term of 1951 a study was made of mean grade point averages. Those freshmen who entered Michigan State College and had been in a counseling clinic made mean grade point averages comparable with those of fall term juniors. Their all college fall term mean honor point ratio of 2.43 as contrasted with 2.20 for all Michigan State College freshmen gave some evidence that people who had come to the campus in the summer made a better scholastic average than freshmen who had not attended the clinic.

When a study was made of the 153 freshmen who were placed on probation for the first time at the end of the fall quarter, 1951, clinic participants had a better record than non-clinic participants. The research revealed 7.8 per cent of the non-clinic first term freshmen were on probation as contrasted with 3.1 per cent of the people who had attended the three-day session. Of the nine people on strict probation, none had been an enrollee in the counseling clinic.

The above factors, all highly favorable to the clinic program, may be due in part to the fact that participants had greater understanding concerning the scholastic requirements of the college than did non-clinic participants.

Michigan State College has Reading, Speech, Hearing, and Arithmetic Improvement Services for students who have deficiencies in these areas. Counseling clinic participants had better understanding of their functions and used them more than non-clinic people. This was especially true in the Reading Improvement Service. In the fall of 1951 clinic participants represented approximately 20 to 25 per cent of all new enrollees at Michigan State College, yet the research revealed that of the 206 students enrolled in the Reading Improvement Services, 106 had been in a counseling clinic. This large percentage was due to the fact that clients of the previous summer's clinic had become aware of their needs and had voluntarily decided to enroll during the fall. In general they made better grades than poor readers who did not enroll for the Reading Improvement Service.

One interesting feature of the study was revealed in the fact that at least three-fourths of the clients indicated they had attended high schools which had some types of guidance services available. Additional investigation gave further evidence that the majority of the participants had relatively satisfactory counseling experiences in high school. It tentatively leads one to the conclusion that counseling encourages people to want more counseling and also raises the question of how one can reach the high school graduate who does not know about the values that can be obtained through guidance services.

Two other general observations can be made at this time. First, the number of guidance services varied with the size of the high school. Over 95 per cent of the schools with enrollments of 300 or over had one or more guidance services. In contrast, out of 18 schools studied, with enrollments under 125, six or one-third of the schools were without any guidance services.

Conclusions

The results of the program are advantageous to the student. From the clinic the student can:

1. Make an analysis of his ability level.
2. Secure assistance in determining aptitude for college.
3. Receive help in planning his educational program.
4. Consider suitable vocations and meth-

ods of obtaining vocational training.
5. Participate in a program of orientation planned for prospective students.
6. Acquire beneficial insight into special deficiencies or special aptitudes that might affect his academic or vocational goals.
7. Eliminate some of the inevitable confusions and frustrations of freshmen week which prevail at most educational institutions.

There are certain advantages of the clinic program to the college. They may be summarized as follows:

1. The program creates good public relations with high schools in the surrounding areas.
2. It enables the college staffs to benefit from associations with visiting counselors from local high schools and near-by colleges who are brought in during the summer to assist with the clinics.
3. It provides an excellent opportunity for counselor training and gives graduate students much practical experience.
4. Counselors and other college officials have an opportunity to become acquainted with prospective students before the rush of orientation activities.
5. The testing program, which includes several examinations required of students in the fall, relieves the college of some of the testing load of orientation week.
6. Large institutions are often criticized because students do not receive enough personal attention. The counseling clinics, by bringing small groups to the campus each week during the summer, enable the college to give every individual a great deal of personal help and attention which is often difficult during orientation week.

In general, the counseling clinics have proved very popular and worth while. They have helped to facilitate the transition of incoming freshmen from high school to college. They have enabled the new student to develop greater self-understanding of his assets and liabilities. They have especially helped him to eliminate some of the inevitable confusions and frustrations of freshman week which prevails at most educational institutions. While it would be naive to assume that orientation problems can be completely solved by clinic, such data as are available suggest considerable progress has been made. Because of this evidence, the program will be expanded in 1953. It will again stress the features of previous years with added emphasis on orientation activities. It is possible, if the present trend continues, that eventually 50 per cent of the incoming freshmen may be enrolled for orientation activities before college begins in the fall.

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THE GREATER RISK

Risk for risk, for myself I had rather take my chance that some traitors will escape detection than spread abroad a spirit of general suspicion and distrust, which accepts rumor and gossip in place of undismayed and unintimidated inquiry.—Judge Learned Hand quoted in *Social Progress*.

the impact of PERSONAL PHILOSOPHIES on counseling

LIKE THE FACIAL expression, the tone of voice, and the many intangibles in the counseling situation, the personal philosophies of the participants play subtle parts. If philosophy, here, may be defined as "a system of principles for guidance in practical affairs,"[1] it is obvious to personnel workers that such systems have implications in the counseling situation.

Mature individuals may develop philosophies and find expression for them. For example, Albert Schweitzer expresses his personal philosophy with these words: "Reverence for life." Students may not express themselves so concisely and well, but they *do* have philosophies which may or may not achieve expression in words. These philosophies have been developed consciously or otherwise over a period of years and represent basically the student's "outlook on life."

Counselors who also teach have a unique opportunity to become familiar with a student's adjustment and thinking before the thoughts crystallize into actions. This writer remembers well the veteran whose themes overflowed with accounts of the *esprit de corps*, the camaraderie, of Company D. Obviously, his experiences in the army had satisfied a need for belonging—a need which the university, somehow, had failed to meet. With a knowledge of the veteran's experiences and with an understanding of his difficulties in adjusting to the university, the counselor was prepared when the veteran announced that he had re-enlisted for another hitch.

In another class a freshman submitted a soul-searching autobiography. It revealed that he, his younger brother, and his mother had lived for four years in a house with the curtains drawn by the father who was violently mentally ill. The mother steadfastly refused to commit her husband to an institution. Naturally, the boy's philosophy of life reflected this experience.

Not all student philosophies are based, in part, on experiences so dramatic as these. In a casual way, a student may reveal a great deal about himself and his thinking. "On the whole," says one college senior on the threshold of graduation, "I suppose I'm quite an ordinary guy. I'll probably make out. I think I have a good sense of humor, and I think I can take whatever is in the cards; but with the draft and all, I'm wondering when I'll ever get set." Such statements reveal something fundamental about the student himself.

Students, then, DO have personal philosophies; but counselors, too, have philosophies not necessarily the kind developed in school, or those professionally eclectic ones, but rather the ones lived by and based on personal experience.

The Counselor's Philosophy

A counselor's beliefs seem to this writer to take on more and more importance as he progresses in his profession. As he gains experience and insight into the problems of others, the counselor begins to think

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[1] The American College Dictionary.

The Counselor must understand his own, says WESLEY VORDENBERG

fundamentally about his beliefs and their relationship to his job. After practicing as a psychiatrist for nearly fifty years, Fisher writes, "If you were to take the sum total of all the authoritative articles ever written by the most qualified of psychologists and psychiatrists . . . if you were to take the whole of the meat and none of the parsley, if you were to have these unadulterated bits of pure scientific knowledge concisely expressed by the most capable of living poets, you would have an incomplete summation of the Sermon on the Mount."[2]

What counselor could read this statement by VanderVeldt and Odenwald without pausing to think? "Client-centered therapy is based on the assumption that the source of valuing things lies exclusively in man himself . . . it makes man his own God."[3]

Regardless of the *kind* of personal philosophy evolved by the counselor, it must surely affect the techniques he uses and the evaluation of the effectiveness of his work.

The Impact

It might very well be that in some instances a difficulty in establishing rapport may be due to the subtle variance between the personal philosophies of the two individuals—the student and the counselor. Neither may be aware of this discrepancy or the difference in the sets of values involved. Each, however, may have a vague feeling of disharmony with the other.

An obvious example might be drawn from the work of placement counselors who sometimes hear these expressions: "It's all a matter of pull—political pull. It isn't what you know or what you can do so much as *who* you know. If you know the right people you can get the job." These statements of half-truths may represent an experience the student has had in getting a job—or they may reflect the thinking of others. Whether or not the counselor makes any overt attempt to disabuse the student of these impressions depends, of course, on the individual counselor. Since the placement worker's goal, however, is the right person for the right job, there exists a difference between the student's statements and the counselor's "system of principles for guidance" in his work.

In other instances, actions may have taken the place of statements. There are people who seek positions by going first to the president of the organization, or to the governor, or to some other influential person before making an appearance at the personnel office. In some instances such a procedure may be warranted, but usually these actions represent a point of view which indicates that the applicant is unwilling to rely on his experience, training, and skills.

Every personnel worker could add examples of his own in the various areas in which he counsels, but this interaction of personal philosophies is not confined to personnel work. In the classroom, for example a realistic student may react unsympathetically, perhaps inadvertently so, to an idealistic teacher. In the home, one generation may fail to understand the other; in the church, factions may create disharmony and even split the congregation.

Summary

In student personnel work, the personnel point of view, a genuine liking for people, thorough professional training, and emotional stability are basic tenets, of course. Basic, too, are the personal philosophies of the counselor and student. An understanding of the student is incomplete without an understanding of his philosophy of life and the empirical basis for it; nor is counseling on firm ground without the counselor's understanding of his own philosophy of life and the subtle, and sometimes undetected, impact of these philosophies on the counseling situation.

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[2] James Tucker Fisher and Lowell S. Hawley, *A Few Buttons Missing* (Philadelphia: Lippincott, 1951).

[3] J. H. VanderVeldt and Robert P. Odenwald, *Psychiatry and Catholicism* (New York: McGraw-Hill, 1952).

The Teaching of Occupations in 1952

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and

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ACCORDING TO figures which appear in the Biennial Survey of Education in the U. S. 1948–1950, recently released by the U. S. Office of Education, courses in occupations now enroll more high school students than many of the more traditional subjects such as economic geography, trigonometry, solid geometry, German, office practice, retailing, salesmanship and advertising, journalism, and consumer education. More than 5,000 students are studying occupations in each of the following states: California, Georgia, Illinois, Iowa, Kansas, Massachusetts, Michigan, Minnesota, New Jersey, New York, Pennsylvania, Rhode Island, and Texas. Total enrollment for the United States exceeds 150,000, and every state, with the sole exception of Nevada, is listed as having occupations courses in some of its schools.

In the January, 1952 issue of *Occupations*, the authors reviewed some then current practices in the teaching of occupations. In that report, they presented the results of correspondence with 38 schools nominated by state supervisors of occupational information and guidance. The present article is intended to summarize the results of a further study of occupations courses in the public schools based upon correspondence with 36 additional schools recommended by college counselor trainers as doing "a superior job of presenting occupational information to their students through the medium of a class in occupations." Since the schools involved in this year's study were selected in a different manner from those reported on last year, a comparison of the results of the two surveys, although interesting and perhaps suggestive, is not necessarily indicative of trends.

Some of the results of this year's survey are as follows:

Almost as many occupations courses were offered in the upper grades as in the ninth grade. If we consider only those schools in which occupations was a separate course, we find that 10 had courses in the eighth or ninth grade, 8 in the eleventh or twelfth grade, 2 in the tenth grade and 2 in all grades. Two schools had occupations courses at both the lower and upper levels. A similar situation was noted in last year's report. Apparently, the fact that a greater number of students are now finishing high school is partly responsible for this tendency to shift the occupations course to a higher grade level where it is likely to be more functional. It is interesting to note that in quite a few of the schools studied this year the occupations course was offered as an elective subject, particularly in those institutions where it was taught in the upper grade levels.

The use of guest speakers and career conferences was the most frequently reported special technique in occupations courses. This procedure was mentioned in 18 replies. Self-appraisal techniques were used in 16 schools, visual aids in 15, and occupational field trips in 12. A noteworthy development is the wide variety of methods which were employed in some of the schools. In addition to the usual class discussions and preparation of career books, job-getting techniques were taught in 7 schools by having the pupils write job reviews and letters of application, rehearse job interviews and analyze want ads. Six schools reported that the students worked in committees conduct-

Courses in Occupations at the high school level

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ing library research, interviewing job holders, and reporting to the class in panel discussions.

Some less frequently mentioned techniques, which other teachers of occupations classes might like to try, were the making of occupational charts by pupils, buzz sessions, socio-drama, and career "wheels." At the Bloomfield High School in Connecticut, pupils were encouraged to assist in planning the activities of the class. Miss Marcia W. Zabriskie, the school's guidance director and teacher of the boys' occupations class feels that "we don't begin to use students as often as we should in determining the direction in which we want to move."

As this article was about to go to press, a report came in that the public schools of Newark, New Jersey, have made a color motion picture of students participating in a job visitation program in which high school seniors spend a day visiting jobs and observing workers in their chosen fields. This same school system also broadcasts over the school radio tape recordings of occupations class sessions in which the representatives of different occupations discussed employment recreation facilities all help acquaint the possibilities for young workers. Further details may be found in the 1952 Annual Report of the Department of Guidance of the Newark Public Schools written by Carrie R. Losi, Director of Guidance in Newark.

The number of occupations classes taught by guidance counselors exceeded the number taught by social studies teachers. The score was 15 to 13. Apparently, school administrators are taking cognizance of the fact that perfunctory workbook units forced upon a harassed ninth year civics teacher seldom make for a worth-while course in occupations. On the other hand, when guidance counselors are assigned to teach occupations classes, they usually bring to the classroom not only a certain amount of enthusiasm but also the knowledge and training needed to carry through a student self-appraisal program in conjunction with the course.

The course title most commonly used continues to be "Occupations." Some titles not hitherto encountered were: "Adjusting to Vocational Life," "Educational and Occupational Guidance," "Business Exploration," and "Business Relations."

The objectives of these occupations courses were essentially the same as the aims of the courses studied last year. Besides presenting occupational information, which all 36 schools tried to do, 11 considered it important to help the student appraise himself, 9 set out to teach the techniques of getting and holding a job, 6 aimed at adjusting the student to the school curriculum (perhaps, some day, it will be the other way around), and 3 initiated student surveys of occupational opportunities in the local community.

The content and methods of teaching these courses are illustrated by the following statements made by the teachers themselves:

"In addition to discussions, socio-drama, visits to industry, investigations and reports, buzz sessions, committee work, motion pictures plus discussion and assemblies, in our senior year we have, once a week, someone from a vocational field meet with students interested in that field. This year, we are trying this with juniors also—at the request of the juniors."—Estelle E. Feldman, Board of Education, New Haven, Connecticut.

"Occupational trends in the state are studied by reviewing the want ad sections of the Arkansas *Gazette* and the Arkansas *Democrat* newspapers each Monday throughout the year."—Otis Galloway, Counselor, Des Arc Consolidated School, Des Arc, Arkansas.

"A variety of methods and techniques are used, student opinion and choice included. School records, checklists, Kuder Preference Record, Study-Habit Inventory, etc., are used in the first unit, laboratory method of studying an occupation in the second with group conferences, films, visits, to supplement this. Local job and educational opportunities are surveyed by student visits, interviews, exchange of information. Last unit includes work on application blanks, letters of application, practice interviews."—Mildred G. Fox, Guidance Coun-

selor, Westfield High School, Westfield, New Jersey.

"Including pupils in the planning of class activities . . . always insures greater interest on their part. Charts made by pupils show what people do on their particular street."—Marcia W. Zabriskie, Guidance Director, Bloomfield High School, Bloomfield, Connecticut.

"Our teaching methods include many visits to local industries talks by representatives of local industries and members of the chamber of commerce. We also invite representatives of the labor groups to speak to the students and have a schedule of conferences with recent alumni concerning jobs in industry and the professions."—Ellen M. Shea, Vice-Principal, Lyman Hall High School, Wallingford, Connecticut.

"Annual Career Talks (this will be the 7th year) are held in various locations of the Torrington High School building with members of the senior, junior, sophomore, and freshman classes sharing in the opportunity and privilege, not only hearing from, but asking questions of, well qualified speakers actually 'on the firing line.' Impartial selection of Career Talk Topics is actually decided by a vote taken in the senior English classes and tabulated by the Guidance Department." — George A. Roberts, Jr., Guidance Director, Torrington High School, Torrington, Connecticut.

Some of the teachers of these courses have suggestions which may be of interest to those who wish to initiate an occupations course in their own schools.

"Use the results of a survey among pupils, such as the Mooney Checklist, to point up the *need* for imparting occupational information to *all* students. Show a movie such as 'Finding Your Life Work' to an entire faculty and introduce this topic for discussion: 'How May We Best Provide the Occupational Information Needed by Our Pupils?.' Invite representatives from a school where such a course is included and ask them to tell why they consider this an important curriculum offering. (Have *student* as well as faculty representatives.)—Marcia W. Zabriskie, Guidance Director, Bloomfield High School, Bloomfield, Conn.

"We try to point out the relationship between school subjects and jobs and the importance of this relationship by distributing posters among classrooms, *i.e.*, 'jobs based on ability in Math,' etc., and by alerting teachers to individual ambitions and interests thus insuring cooperation."—Elsie C. Menzies, Guilford High School, Guilford, Connecticut.

"Anyone desiring to introduce such a course should present his reasons before the faculty and the administrators in a clear, straightforward, and informative manner. An occupations course is certainly enriching to any school curriculum and if the objectives are properly stated, there should be little difficulty in securing the support of the faculty."—Mrs. Kenneth L. Moore, Guidance Director, Liberty High School, Liberty, Missouri.

"I personally would refuse to start such a program unless the administrative officers were in harmony with the idea. The faculty can be converted by hard work and the production of tangible good results. The more a faculty comes to understand, the less the antipathy toward an occupations class."—E. F. Rucks, Counselor, Lakeside High School, Hot Springs, Arkansas.

"When I contacted my principal about starting such a course he was interested because our high school needs elective subjects for general students particularly. We got the approval of the supervising principal, Board of Education, and State Department of Education. The faculty in our school was interested and helpful. I would suggest that anyone interested in starting such a course think in terms of general and commercial students and be interested in teaching it himself. Asking the librarian and other teachers (social studies and English) for suggestions might be helpful."—Mildred G. Fox, Guidance Counselor, Westfield High School, Westfield, New Jersey.

The following comments indicate some of the reasons why teachers of occupations courses feel that their efforts are not in vain:

"In my opinion the occupations course is of tremendous value to the students. It

forces them to think of their future. It forces them to think of their potential abilities. It gives them information about the training or educational possibilities (colleges, etc.) that are open to them. It gives them information about the world of work. It helps to motivate academic classes. It helps them to mature."—James T. Kirkland, Guidance Counselor, Dwight Morrow High School, Englewood, New Jersey.

"All in all, Torrington High School, through the combined efforts of John D. Hogan, principal, Mr. Roberts, guidance director, and his counseling staff and the entire English Department personnel make sure that all students have ample opportunity to avail themselves of a complete orientation program during their high school career relative to the choice of a suitable career for their life's work."—George A. Roberts, Jr., Guidance Director, Torrington High School, Torrington, Connecticut.

"I think the course is valuable. I have not made a systematic evaluation, but use student evaluation in each class. It has helped them to analyze themselves in their school situation and make more realistic choice of school subjects and plans for the future. It has given them more information about occupational families and occupations specifically. It has made them feel a little more confident when they try to enter the working world. It has given students the opportunity to use community resources which has developed to make school more meaningful. It helped them to get acquainted with many sources of information on ocupations."—Mildred G. Fox, Guidance Counselor, Westfield High School, Westfield, New Jersey.

"It helps students to decide whether they will follow the bookkeeping, secretarial, accounting, etc., sequence and we place about 40 per cent of these people in jobs in and about the Hazleton area."—Lawrence C. Evangelista, Senior High School, Hazleton, Pennsylvania.

Summary

This study, like the one made by the authors last year, seems to indicate that there is a healthy tendency toward giving the occupations course in the upper terms of the high school curriculum as an elective taught by guidance counselors using techniques which include the use of outside speakers, visual aids, self-appraisal, and occupational field trips. Some of the other methods currently being employed are: student planning of the course itself, student-made posters based on neighborhood occupational surveys, the broadcasting of tape recordings of group conferences, buzz sessions, socio-drama and last, but far from least, the making of a technicolor movie of students visiting workers on their jobs.

GUIDANCE AS EDUCATION IN TRANSITION?

We must recognize that the reason why so many teachers and administrators are trying desperately to introduce guidance programs in their schools is that they and the public realize that the regular program of the school fails to meet the real needs of youth and of America. Guidance is, basically, a compromise between what we *actually teach* in the schools and what we know full well we *ought to teach*.—C. A. Weber in January *Phi Delta Kappan*.

Limit not thy children to thine own ideas. They are born in a different time.—*The Talmud*.

Personal Characteristics of Counselors: I

by WILLIAM C. COTTLE

ANY ATTEMPT AT identification of personal characteristics of counselors needs to consider those characteristics which are essential for effective service at each level of counseling and in each kind of counseling. Such an attempt needs to consider also the most effective means of appraising these characteristics. This involves a survey of the literature to determine what has been accomplished and planning further research so that it can supplement present research in an integrated fashion.

It seems necessary to identify clearly each area and level of counseling because it is not apparent whether the characteristics of counselors in each area and at each level within an area are the same or different. That is, it is not clear whether the same characteristics are required for each successful counselor in educational institutions whether in elementary schools, secondary school, or in college counseling bureaus. An investigation of differences which may exist in successful counselors in different areas and levels of counseling would include academic aptitude as well as other personal characteristics. Wrenn [*16*] has attacked this problem in his report on the use of the Miller Analogies Test, the Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory, the Strong Vocational Interest Blank, the Allport-Vernon-Lindzey Study of Values and the Guilford Zimmerman Temperament Survey with a sample of 30 graduate level counselor trainees.

Another approach would be to collect objective evidence in the form of profiles of mean scores and also arrays of items which differentiate counselors on standardized tests in the same way that the different kinds of psychologists have been differentiated on interest inventories such as the Strong Vocational Interest Blank. With this objective in mind the writer has undertaken a study using the Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory and the Guilford Zimmerman Temperament Survey with counselors in college counseling bureaus. Results of this study will be reported later. However, some larger plan is needed for a comprehensive, nation-wide study of counseling services in all areas of educational and non-educational personnel work.[1]

This present survey of the literature has indicated that considerable unintegrated work has been accomplished in the direction of identifying characteristics of counselors. Research with the Kuder Preference Record and the Strong Vocational Interest Blank has initiated the collection of objective evidence of the interests of counselors. Additional means of evaluating other counseling characteristics by using standardized tests need to be developed.

Let us turn now to some of the attempts to identify and appraise the personal characteristics of counselors. The most complete and comprehensive summary of earlier work, other than that reported in current periodical literature, is to be found in Jones' excellent summary [*10*]. In this he cites individual studies as well as those conducted by various personnel organizations.

One of these is a doctoral study at New York University by R. J. Bailey [*2*] which lists as characteristics of counselors: sympathetic understanding of youth, emotional stability, approachability, broad scope of knowledge and interests, good judgment, and common sense. Another study at the

A REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

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[1] This is a part of the program being outlined by the APGA Committee on Professional Training, Licensing and Certification.

University of Pennsylvania by Rachel D. Cox [5] attempts to approach this problem of the evaluation of the counselor at the secondary school level by a case study technique. Cox identifies 24 characteristics most of which are identified in other studies, although in varying combinations.

A summary of these characteristics listed by Cox are: (1) fairness, (2) sincerity, (3) "personality", (4) good character and wholesome philosophy, (5) common sense, (6) health, (7) emotional stability, (8) approachability, (9) ability to get along with people, (10) sympathetic understanding of youth, (11) interest in people, (12) understanding people different from self, (13) flexibility and adaptability, (14) intelligence and mental alertness, (15) social culture, (16) broad knowledge and interests, (17) leadership, (18) awareness of one's own limitations, (19) professional attitude, (20) sense of mission, (21) interest in guidance and personnel work, (22) understanding of classroom conditions, (23) understanding of working conditions, and (24) understanding of social and economic conditions. It is obvious from this list that several of these, particularly the last three, are more matters of knowledge than personal characteristics and that a number of them are quite ambiguous and open to misinterpretations.

This writer would agree with Jones [*10*] in his statement that "many of these (attempts) are very suggestive and helpful but nearly all are, as a whole, very unsatisfactory. Among the reasons for this are: 1. The lists represent merely the opinions of the people who make them. . . . 2. They do not distinguish between the counselor and other members of the school personnel. . . . 3. The traits of successful counselors vary so much that it is difficult to select one list that is satisfactory. . . . 4. It is the interrelations or pattern of characteristics that is important."

Other studies dealing with these traits included a study conducted at Northwestern University in 1948 by Palmer Graver as reported in Hamrin and Paulson [*9*]. This study had counselors list the traits necessary for counseling in order of frequency. The following traits were derived: understanding, sympathetic attitude, friendliness, sense of humor, stability, patience, objectivity, sincerity, tact, fairness, tolerance, neatness, calmness, broadmindedness, kindliness, pleasantness, social intelligence and poise. In discussing the employee-counselor, Graves [*8*] has listed personality traits necessary as: integrity, vitality, judgment, health, industriousness, high personal standards, adaptability, training, and experience. A survey of 46 employers by Yarborough [*17*] produced a list of qualities of personnel workers which include general education, special training and skills, and specific personality qualities. Bowler and Dawson [3] list as qualifications of the industrial counselor: objectivity, respect for the individual, self-understanding, mature judgment, ability to listen and keep confidences, resourcefulness and reliability, sense of humor, constructive criticism and personal integrity.

A Recent Description

One of the most recent descriptions of characteristics of counselors is that found in the National Vocational Guidance Association publication on Counselor Preparation [*15*]. This publication states that in general characteristics of counselors include a deep interest in people, patience with them, sensitiveness to the attitudes and reactions of others, emotional stability and objectivity, a capacity for being trusted by others, and a respect for facts. While it is pointed out that the appraisal of these characteristics is extremely difficult it does suggest qualities which may be appraised. These include scholastic aptitude required for graduate work, interest typical of persons successful in working with others as expressed in terms of inventories or stated preferences, and the emotional maturity or adjustment indicated by experience records, interviews, tests, and ratings.

These studies have also been supplemented by the work of such organizations as the National Vocational Guidance Association Committee of 1941, by the report on counselor training of NVGA [*15*], as well as committees of the National Association of

Deans of Women and the National Association of Guidance Supervisors. Most of these studies, however, are concerned with subjective judgment and little attempt has been made to secure objectivity in the listing of personality characteristics of counselors. Some of the other studies listed below will deal specifically with the use of standardized inventories as a more objective approach to identification of the characteristics of counselors.

As reported in Hamrin and Paulson [9] a doctoral study by Brown [4] at Northwestern University in 1946 investigated 42 counselors using the Strong Vocational Interest Blank to do this. Nineteen of these counselors were males and 23 were females. Both groups showed a high interest in occupations dealing with people as individuals and as members of groups and indicated a secondary pattern in business.

Another and more detailed study using the Strong Vocational Interest Blank to identify the vocational interests of psychologists is a study by Kriedt [14]. Kriedt administered the Strong Vocational Interest Blank to 1,048 male psychologists selected from the 1948 APA directory, 115 of whom were classified as guidance psychologists. Kriedt found that the rank order correlation between profiles for all 1948 psychologists versus the guidance psychologists was 0.77 on the Strong Vocational Interest Blank. He found also that guidance psychologists deviate in a social service direction and that they have a low "A" mean score on the 1948 psychologist's key. He found that all subgroups among these psychologists which included industrial, guidance, clinical, and experimental psychologists had higher scores on the 1948 general key for psychologists than on the 1938 key constructed by Strong himself. The industrial and guidance psychologists show the greatest increase in score, but the 1948 group as a whole seem to have more the interests of applied psychology and the 1938 group those of the laboratory scientist.

The guidance psychologist seems to have a stronger preference than others for interviewing, service to others, personnel work, and writing. There is a positive correlation between guidance and industrial psychologist's keys indicating that they tend to differ from non-guidance psychologists in the same way as the industrial psychologist differs from non-industrial psychologists. The correlation of the guidance psychologist key with those in the other fields based on a mixed sample of 216 psychologists was:

psychologist key	0.32 ± 0.08
clinical key	0.28 ± 0.09
experimental key	0.82 ± 0.03
industrial key	0.54 ± 0.07

This study seems to indicate that while there is considerable similarity among the different types of psychologists, psychologists engaged in counseling and guidance can be differentiated in terms of their scores on the Strong Vocational Interest Blank.

Another study which seems to indicate the same type of thing is that of Kelly and Fiske [12] dealing with the prediction of performance in clinical psychology. Although this study is not directly related to counseling, it does illustrate in general the way in which a study could be conducted to give the kind of information for describing the characteristics of counselors. It may indicate in general some of the characteristics which can be anticipated in such an investigation. These writers found a high degree of similarity between clinical and non-clinical psychology trainees on tests of scholastic aptitude such as the Miller Analogies Test and the Primary Mental Abilities Test. The range on the Miller Analogies Test was from the fiftieth percentile to the eighty-third percentile. Clinicians were higher in the Primary Mental Abilities Test on numbers and were lower on spatial relations. This was a significant difference from other psychology trainees. The only significant difference on the Allport-Vernon Study of Values between clinicians and other psychologists was in favor of the clinical group (higher) on the social values part of this test.

Traits of Clinical Trainees

Describing the scores of the clinical psychology trainees on the Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory, Kelly and

Fiske state that this is a "group which deviates from the normative population on being less hypochondriacal, slightly more subject to depression, considerably more hysterical, extremely feminine, much less psychasthenic and less schizoid. But we must also add—a group far more able and inclined to put its best foot forward as indicated by the extremely high K scores."

In further describing the personality traits of these clinical psychology trainees Kelly and Fiske continue "on the basis of the Guilford-Martin scores, we may say that (they) . . . are much more socially extraverted much freer from depressive and cycloid tendencies, slightly more compulsive, much less physically active, more ascendant and more masculine. They are much less subject to inferiority feelings, admit far fewer nervous habits, and are more objective, agreeable, and cooperative."

In a previous article in the American Psychologist [*13*] they state that interuniversity groups differ more than clinical versus non-clinical trainees. They state that the Veterans Administration Clinical Psychologist scale on the Strong Vocational Interest Blank regularly yields a high correlation with more criterion measures and compared favorably with the best predictions based on assessment rating. Scores on this scale predicted as well as any clinical judgments made of the entire program. A clinical scale to discriminate between promising and unpromising applicants constructed with interest and attitude items is suggested. They continue to say ". . . more attention may well be given to the role of motivation. Perhaps at the level of graduate training, we need establish only a minimum of cutting score on tests of intellectual aptitude; beyond that point, the strength of motivation and the absence of conflicting drives may be the determining factor in success in professional training, and even in the conduct of professional duties." On the Strong Vocational Interest Blank Kelly and Fiske [*12*] state that the clinical group scored a B+ or higher on personnel manager, lawyer, Group I, V, and X, an A on occupational level, and a B+ on masculinity-femininity. (The meaning of the last two scores is not clear, because these are usually expressed as standard scores or percentiles.) The clinical group was higher on Group V and IX and the non-clinical groups were higher on Group I and II. They claim that this shows that the clinical group is much more interested in activities dealing with contact with people. Thus while it may contain flaws, it is seen that this study may hold some clues to a method of approach for describing the characteristics of counselors not only at the doctorate level, but at all levels of training.

Another study which gives some indication of the characteristics of nurse counselors is that by Kaback [*11*]. She made a study of 34 nurse counselors enrolled in summer workshop in counseling at Columbia University and at the University of Colorado. The average age of these counselors was 42.5 years, while the range of age was from 56.5 to 25.5. Most of these people had their bachelor's degree and one-fourth of them had a master's degree. In describing their academic ability Kaback states that on the Otis Self-Administering Test of Mental Ability (20 Minute Form) the mean raw score was 60 (an IQ of 113). On the American Council on Education Psychological Examination (ACE) the mean total raw score was 126 which is a score at the 78th percentile for national college women. On the Kuder Preference Record Form BB these nurse counselors score high on artistic, literary, and social service and low on mechanical, persuasive, clerical scores. On the Bennett and Frey Test of Mechanical Comprehension, Form WI, their mean score is at the 92nd percentile while their score on the MacQuarrie Test of Mechanical Ability was average. Scores on the Bernreuter indicate an average score on emotional stability and scores in the direction of self sufficiency, extroversion, and dominance.

Vocational Rehabilitation Counselors

Kuder scores on vocational rehabilitation counselors are given by DiMichael [*6*] where they are described as having high scores on persuasive, literary, and social service with

low scores on mechanical, computational, scientific, artistic, clerical. An attempt to develop Kuder patterns for psychologists in the same way that Kriedt developed scores on the Strong for psychologists has been made by Baas [*1*]. He found that all psychologists (N = 111) scored low on mechanical, persuasive, and clerical scales of the Kuder and scored high on scientific, literary, computational, and social service scales in that order. The consulting and guidance psychologist (N = 26) scored low on mechanical, persuasive, artistic, and clerical while scoring high on computational, scientific, literary, and social service. The industrial psychologist (N = 25) scored low on mechanical and persuasive and high on computational, scientific, and literary. It is to be noted here that the chief difference between these two groups is the difference found on the social service scale. Baas goes on to say "for the entire professional sample the scientific and literary scores were above the 75th percentile of Kuder's norms for adult men." He also found that low interest areas for professional psychologists are reflected in the mean scores for the mechanical, persuasive, and clerical scales. His findings suggest that professional experience may contribute to preference scores, although Strong's work on age changes in interest would not support such findings. The chief criticism of this study is that the samples are small and are based on Purdue University students only.

Wrenn's study [*16*] mentioned above reports the following test results with a sample of 30 graduate counselor trainees: (1) a median raw score on the Miller Analogies, Form G, in the middle seventies; (2) highest on the Allport-Vernon-Lindzey Study of Values on the Theoretical and Religious scales, with men lowest on Aesthetic and women on the Economic scale; (3) median scores above the 75th percentile for men and 90th percentile for women on Guilford Zimmerman Temperament Survey scales for Restraint, Emotional Stability, Friendliness, Objectivity, and Personal Relations, with medians on other scales ranging from the 70th to the 30th percentile; (4) although the Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory profiles had not yet been analyzed, the most striking observation was infrequency of elevation for Hs, D, or Si. The proportion of males and females in the sample is not reported and no indication is given whether they all completed graduate work successfully or were considered successful counselors.

Another study of personnel and guidance workers using the Kuder Preference Record Vocational and the Allport-Vernon Study of Values is being conducted by James Nelson at the University of Denver.[2] Results of this study are not recorded as yet but will supplement the work listed above.

In the light of the above data it seems obvious that most of the attempts to evaluate the personal characteristics of counselors are sporadic and unrelated. Many of the reports are based on subjective judgment of a questionable nature. The profiles of the various kinds and levels of counselors vary considerably on standardized tests, primarily on inventories of interest and attitudes. Interest inventories and structured personality inventories seem to offer a promising area of investigation in the identification of characteristics of counselors in various areas and at various levels within each area. Additional information about the scholastic aptitude of counselors seems needed.

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WHAT SHALL WE BELIEVE?

Some beliefs are like pleasant gardens with high walls around them.
They encourage exclusiveness, and the feeling of being especially privileged.
Other beliefs are expansive and lead the way into wider and deeper sympathies.
Some beliefs are like shadows, darkening children's days with fears of unknown calamities.
Other beliefs are like the sunshine, blessing children with the warmth of happiness.
Some beliefs are divisive, separating the saved from the unsaved, friends from enemies.
Other beliefs are bonds in a universal brotherhood, where sincere differences beautify the pattern.
Some beliefs are like blinders, shutting off the power to choose one's own direction.
Other beliefs are like gateways opening up vistas of exploration.
Some beliefs weaken a child's selfhood. They blight the growth of resourcefulness.
Other beliefs nurture self-confidence and enrich the feeling of personal worth.
Some beliefs are rigid, like the body of death, impotent in a changing world.
Other beliefs are pliable, like the young sapling, ever growing with the upward thrust of life.
It is indeed important what mankind has believed.
It is important what we believe.
And what a child believes is also a serious matter—not a subject for jest or sentimentality.—Sophia Fahz in *Today's Children and Yesterday's Heritage.*

dissuasive

TOOLS IN COUNSELING

by PETER P. HALE

VISUAL AIDS and sensory techniques are used in vocational guidance as a source of occupational information. Literature, films, lectures, visitations, exhibits, and so forth are used extensively in an effort to promote counselee understanding and acceptance of the environmental, physical, educational, mental, and emotional demands to be expected in training and as prerequisites for occupations in the world of work.

With anticipation, each counselor expects his counselee to evaluate, to interpret, and to grasp the significance of occupational information with sufficient perception to make a suitable vocational choice. However, in a number of cases, counseling is not realistically accepted; especially, when a counselee's non-acceptance of his limitations persist. It is at this point that the resourcefulness and ingenuity of the counselor is required. He must then recognize, select, adapt, apply, and use an appropriate visual aid or sensory technique as a dissuasive tool to effect a favorable behavioral change.

A review of vocational guidance literature, however, finds a lack of investigation and information in counselee behavioral changes when such a tool is used. As a corollary, the value and use of specific dissuasive tools in counseling is in need of exploration and study.

With this in mind, several examples are given to illustrate some favorable behavioral changes attained in counseling when certain dissuasive tools were appropriately used.

One counselor purchased a shop mathematics book originally to review his mathematics fundamentals. On the book jacket was a general description of the contents: "Elements of Algebra," "Fundamentals of Arithmetic," "Shop Trigonometry," and "Practical Geometry." Since its purchase, this book has occasionally been used as a dissuasive tool and has repaid the counselor manifold its cost in counseling time and effort. Two examples of how this specific visual aid was used in dissuading Counselee A and Counselee B from training for occupations requiring a mathematics potential beyond their capabilities follow:

Counselee A: Test results, high school marks, occupational demands, and other factors were discussed with Counselee A. He would not veer from his original suggestion to train as a machinist. He recognized mathematics as a difficult subject but stated he would be able to master mathematics once in training. Asked if he would be able to study similar related mathematics as presented in the shop mathematics book, Counselee A paused several times and concluded, "This looks tough. I forgot math could be so complicated. I'd have to go back to grade school to pick up division and fractions. I can't afford to do that."

Counselee B: Test results made no impression on Counselee B. Of mathematics, he said, "You get all that in school. That's what schools are for. These tests are just so much paper. Now that I'm older, I can see what schooling means." His attention was directed to the shop mathematics book. He questioned the "big words on the cover" then opened the book to the chapter on "Common Fractions." Relating this as well as other mathematics requirements for training in television repair "sold" Counselee B in a consideration of lower level training goals.

Another counselor fruitlessly pictured the skills and coordinative requirements in ad-

A new use for "visual aids"

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justing a tabulating machine and the noisy environment in which IBM operators worked. However, Counselee C was of the opinion he was capable of training as a Tabulating Machine Operator. The noisy environment, he said, was "not like the clicking made by typewriters and adding machines which make me nervous."

Counselee C: It did not take long for Counselee C to feel the effect of the noise made by a battery of IBM's running through several thousand cards. Counselee C was anxious to leave. He became visibly tense and nervous. He was unable to eat luncheon. Later, he phoned to request a new appointment.

The testing situation was used by another counselor as a dissuasive tool in effecting a favorable behavioral change.

Counselee D: Counselee D aspired to higher academic studies than his age, poor marks in high school, dull normal intelligence, and questionable sincerity and motivation indicated. He shrugged these off saying, "When a man puts his mind down to it, he can study twenty-four hours a day."

After a short while he became impatient with the test on reading comprehension. He rose from the chair, paced the room with the test booklet, sat down, got up again and said, "I guess I'm a little too nervous to take tests today."

The following day, he reacted in the same manner. He then said, "I remember acting the same way in high school. I can't stay too long in one place. What's more, I never did care for reading. I guess I'd have to change if I wanted to go back to school. I'm too old for that."

Counselee E scored poorly on coordination tests but insisted he could do much better if he were actually on a job. His employment record revealed a history of accident proneness. In spite of these facts, Counselee E persisted in his ability to train as a radio repairman. The O'Rourke Short Work Experiences Radio Kit was administered.

Counselee E: Counselee E claimed he was capable of soldering and was apt with manipulative tasks. For ten minutes, he fumbled with the Fahnstock clips and nuts. After he burned his finger with the soldering iron, he was ready to accept his clumsiness in performing fine manual tasks.

Conclusions

Counselors have made use of visual aids and sensory techniques not only as informative source material but have occasionally made use of a specific visual aid or sensory technique as a dissuasive tool in counseling.

The use of a specific visual aid or sensory technique as a dissuasive tool has been found by some counselors to result in a reduction of counseling time and effort. Another important result was counselee acceptance of his limitations to the demands of training or for an occupation in the world of work.

Recognition, selection, adaptation, application, and use of a specific visual aid or sensory technique as a dissuasive tool in effecting favorable behavioral changes in a non-accepting counselee is a challenge to the resourcefulness and ingenuity of the counselor.

The effectiveness and value of dissuasive tools in altering human behavior during counseling is an area requiring exploration, study, and analysis.

There is no justification for indiscriminate attacks on our schools and the sincere, devoted, and by no means overpaid teachers who labor in them. If there are any communist teachers, of course they should be excluded, but the task is not one for self-appointed thought police or ill-informed censors. As a practical matter, we do not stop Communist activity in this way. What we do is give the Communists material with which to defame us. And we also stifle the initiative of teachers and depreciate the prestige of the teaching profession which should be as honorable and esteemed as any among us.—Adlai Stevenson.

THE GUIDANCE FUNCTION *in the Elementary School*

HAROLD F. COTTINGHAM

WHAT should be the nature of guidance in the elementary school? As new studies dealing with this problem become available, the picture is becoming clearer. In the following discussion several opinions held by the author will be combined with currently held viewpoints as a basis for examining the nature of the guidance function in the elementary school, procedures by which it is carried out, and personnel responsible for its development.

Guidance in elementary schools can be considered as having three aspects: (1) a point of view, (2) a process, and (3) a service. These aspects are related, since the process is a series of experiences centering around the individual pupil, while the point of view is the philosophy back of the service that provides the experiential framework. The point of view includes a recognition and knowledge of the unique characteristics of each pupil, and a concerted effort by all school and community resources to meet individual pupil needs.

As a process, guidance at the elementary level is seen as a series of experiences which enable the child to learn satisfactorily self adjustment methods which are adequate to meet his personal, social, physical, and academic needs. Basically, the process rests upon the assumption that children in elementary school have various needs which are grouped around his acceptance of himself, his relation to other human beings, and his integration into the educational program, both instructional and non-academic.

In viewing guidance as a service, *i.e.*, a set of procedures for implementing the point of view with the pupil process as an objective, the pattern of services usually described for the secondary school is inappropriate. Instead one might view elementary guidance as a series of approaches, or perhaps service areas, aimed at meeting the unique adjustment needs of elementary school youth. These approaches are specifically through administrative and curricular policies, through instructional procedures, through community resources, and through selected professional activities fostering guidance.

Underlying the procedures used to attain the objective of optimum development of each pupil is the assumption that all the methods employed must view the basic problem of pupil adjustment in the same light. Reduced to its fundamental terms the guidance function as applied to each pupil consists of understanding and help. Depending upon one's philosophy and semantic orientation, possibly such labels as diagnosis and therapy might be used.

A final phase of elementary guidance centers on the topic of who renders the services which result in the aforementioned process. The classroom teacher is the key person, both in rendering adjustment functions herself, and in coordinating other guidance services that stem from any of the approaches undertaken. However, in her work as a guidance person, some differentiation should be made between this role and her role as an instructor in areas of knowledge and skill. It is granted that perhaps this distinction is a fine one and not clear cut, yet her immediate objectives in certain aspects of the instructional program may emphasize the acquisition of con-

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cepts, skills, and understandings (constituting the curriculum) while the purpose of her guidance role may concern more personal problems of self understanding as to choices, goals, and decisions. It is not suggested that these two closely related functions be separated; rather that as complementary parts of the dual role the elementary teacher must play, they require a somewhat different emphasis and methodology. Fundamentally, the thesis proposed is that teaching and guidance services (as performed by the individual teacher) require unique responsibilities, but point toward rather common long-range goals.

As a coordinator of guidance functions, utilizing available resources, the teacher will of necessity draw upon school as well as community personnel who are qualified to perform appropriate services. Such individuals are an essential part of the guidance function in elementary school since meeting basic needs must go beyond immediate classroom facilities.

THE COUNSELOR AS AN EDUCATIONAL LEADER

Those of us who have specialized in the guidance field and who have acquired quite a volume of information, mostly developed since many teachers have started teaching, often expect teachers to understand and do much more than they are able. Some teachers are reluctant to express their lack of information with the result that what appears to be indifference is many times timidity.

This is not a criticism of teachers for not knowing, but rather a responsibility of counselors to help teachers acquire and understand what is being done in the guidance program and what they themselves can do. Counselors should be aware of this need on the part of teachers and should strive to meet it through faculty meetings and discussions, informal conversation, bulletins, and special pupil conferences.—Marvin E. Gibson in January New York State Counselors *News Bulletin.*

Man is born with rainbows in his heart and you'll never read him unless you consider the rainbows.—Carl Sandburg.

Specialism is open to the danger that its possessor loses in width of horizon what he gains in intensity of gaze.—Harold Laski.

The Community Occupational Survey and Studies of Occupational Choice*

THE COMMUNITY occupational survey, as a technique for obtaining occupational information, has served a number of useful functions, but primarily that of providing data with implications for curriculum planning and for guidance purposes [1]. When the determination of local needs for trained workers has made it apparent that the aims of the school program are not being realized in actual practice, community occupational surveys have spurred school administrators to provide training consistent with these needs.

The determination of the occupational structure of a community provides a basis for "realistic" counseling with students in that community. The assumption is made that students who have knowledge of the types of job opportunities actually available will make more realistic occupational choices. A study by Nick [4] indicates that the occupational choices of groups of high school students may be changed by providing occupational information to these groups. In a study by Small [6] there is some evidence presented concerning the effect of the individual's perception of job information on the choice of occupation. Nevertheless, we are far from understanding the role that "reality" plays in the choices youths make. We know little, scientifically, of the ways people growing up come to know of the occupations available to them and the ways they adjust their choices to this knowledge.

In the study of occupational choice reported by Ginzberg, Ginsburg, Axelrad, and Herma [2], cognizance is taken of the general economic structure of a community to the extent that the authors note that the study was conducted during a period of high employment. There is little consideration of the occupations actually available to "choose" from although the assumption is made that the subjects had a maximum of occupational opportunities available to them by virtue of their high socio-economic status. For this reason the structure of community occupational life was considered a constant factor as affecting the lives of all in the sample. If this were really the case for all, one would need look no further than the individual himself to explain the dynamics of occupational choice, and in fact the Ginzberg Study does focus primarily on the individual.

There are some investigators (*e.g.*, Olshansky [5]) who feel an individual does not choose an occupation or job, but rather the occupation or job "chooses" him. Kitson is one who suggests that longitudinal studies of occupational choice "might disclose that the most important factors leading one to enter a certain occupation are not psychical at all, but such commonplace things as the nature of the jobs available in the community" [3]. Were this really the case one would need to study the economic structure of society and the nature of occupational life external to the individual to discover what we need to know about occupational choice. Probably neither extreme is appropriate, but both points of view help to describe what occurs in occupational choice.

It is possible that *both* the characteristics

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* A Career Pattern Study Paper: Other principal contributors are Donald E. Super and Albert S. Thompson of Teachers College, Columbia University.

HARRY BEILIN describes a Career Pattern Study investigation.

of the occupational opportunities available and the way the individual perceives and uses them are important. The way in which the objective character of the occupational structure affects a person, even without his awareness, may also be significant. Unfortunately, research has been lacking on the ways in which these factors interact, and it is apparent that the time has come for studies of occupational choice to utilize the occupational survey as a means of getting to know the objective characteristics of the working world as an adjunct to understanding the subjective factors that affect individual choice, particularly in the context of a longitudinal study.

It would be wrong, however, to consider an objective representation of the occupational structure of a community adequate to an understanding of occupational choice. It is as important to know how the society values different kinds of work as it is to know the specific occupational opportunities available. The reason for this lies in the fact that in many cases, if not most, the individual's action in relation to occupations is to a considerable extent a reflection of social standards. Even in periods of depressed economic conditions there will be job opportunities that men shy away from because the kind of work is not socially valued. It is, therefore, important in studies of occupational choice to consider not only the objective characteristics of work, but also the more subjective question of how specific occupations or groups of occupations are perceived by the individuals making choices, or in positions affecting those who make choices.

An attempt is being made to accomplish this in the Career Pattern Study undertaken by the Department of Guidance of Teachers College, Columbia University. The aim of this investigation is to trace the vocational development of approximately 300 boys, who were first studied in the 8th or 9th grades of the public schools of a small urban Middle-Atlantic community. The boys' histories will be studied for a period of 20 years to assess the factors affecting their vocational and social development. In addition to understanding the changes that take place in the boys as they grow older, it has been considered necessary in the design of the project to evaluate the changes taking place in the "real" world and the effect of that "real" world on individual behavior and development. It is felt that in this way a clearer understanding of the social psychology of vocational development will result. With this objective in mind, the following specific studies have been undertaken, or are in the process of being carried out, as parts of the Career Pattern Study.

1. The traditional community occupational survey. A survey of the distribution of occupations in the manufacturing, business, and service establishments in a community conducted through interviews (approximately 1,000). Stress is placed upon entry occupations.
2. A survey of the self-employed. This survey was conducted by mail questionnaire to all persons who appeared, from their occupational listing in the city directory, to be self-employed. This aspect of occupational life has been singularly neglected in community occupational surveys.
3. An occupational attitude survey. This survey attempts to determine the prevailing attitudes in a community toward specific occupations or classes of occupations, as well as the values the community sees in work. There are two parts: (a) prestige ranking of occupations, to determine the prestige hierarchy of occupations for this community; and (b) a value survey, to determine the prevailing work values held by the people in this community by means of interviews employing open-end questions.

Although the integration of these studies into a longitudinal investigation, such as the Career Pattern Study, may appear the ideal method of relating the individual and his environment, it is not unreasonable to expect that cross-sectional or status studies may contribute immediately to an under-

standing of the dynamics of occupational choice and development. Although the results may not be as definitive, the insights and resulting hypotheses may be verified in the longer range studies, and may provide implications for present-day guidance practice long before the results become available from longitudinal studies.

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TV GETS MASS TRY-OUT

Educational television got its big chance in Baltimore. Because of a strike of city employees, schools were closed, but the board of education decided to keep school via the TV camera and TV screen.

It is estimated that some 80,000 pupils heard and saw lessons and demonstrations at home. The strike began January 6. On the same day, selected teachers reported to the city's television stations.

Because the teachers find it easier to give instruction before an audience of pupils, school children living near by are gathered in the studio.

The teacher simply conducts the class as she would if she had a full complement of students before her. Children before the television set at home take notes and make a report that they must turn in the next day at school.

School officials said that they could not expect a large percentage of the pupils to have access to television in their homes. However, children whose families have television sets are encouraged to invite other children to sit in with them.

In an opening address on the first television program, William Lemmel, Superintendent of Public Instruction, said that the Baltimore Board of Education was conducting the mass experiment in television instruction because its members are "anxious that the school children of Baltimore do not suffer from the effects of the strike."—*Edpress Newsletter* (January, 1953).

GOAL ASPIRATION *and academic success*

JUST AS A carpenter should not be judged *wholly* by the tools he carries, neither should a student's chances of academic success be judged *wholly* on his scores on tests of academic aptitude and achievement. Of course, not all people do this. Personnel workers have long been aware that average high school grade and tests of scholastic achievement and aptitude are not the complete answer in predicting success in college. The difficulty is, however, that the above measures are, in the order given, the best predictors of academic success or failure available to us at the present time. The problem then is to ascertain factors other than those measured by the available tests which are associated with academic success and failure.

The problem in the study on which this article is based was to ascertain whether or not differentiation could be made between successful and unsuccessful probational students on the basis of motivational factors when such a differentiation could not be made on the bases of high school records and tests of scholastic aptitude and achievement. In the study itself four areas were investigated: school, vocational, extracurricular, and home and personal areas. In this article only the importance of goal aspiration as a motivational device will be discussed.

In the past, investigators concerned with the prediction of academic success have used the following devices, in this order of importance: average high school grade, tests of scholastic achievement and tests of scholastic aptitude.[2] Therefore, in order to point out the importance of motivational factors associated with academic success it was necessary to have a group which: (a) was relatively homogeneous in relation to high school performance and measured scholastic achievement and aptitude, and (b) would demonstrate variable performance in college.

Such a group was provided by the entire population of students who entered the University of Maryland, College of Special and Continuation Studies, in September, 1948, and who returned to the University of Maryland the following academic year. These students, because they lacked high school certification, were admitted on probation to the College of Special and Continuation Studies, to remain there until they had achieved the 2.0 HPR which would allow them to transfer to the degree-granting college to which they had originally applied. In addition to lacking high school certification, this group of students was significantly lower in measured scholastic achievement and scholastic aptitude than the population of University of Maryland freshmen who were admitted to degree-granting colleges.

Within the study population, variability in performance was the basis on which the criterion of success or failure was established. The study population consisted of 81 individuals, 41 of whom had met the criterion of transfer (Transfer Group) and 40 of whom had not (Non-transfer Group). This study population consisted of the following: 78 of these students had had no college training prior to 1948; there were six women students equally divided between the transfer and non-transfer groups; there were 14 veterans likewise equally divided.

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[1] Parts of this article were presented at the Eastern Psychological Association meeting at Atlantic City, New Jersey, Spring, 1952, session.

[2] R. M. W. Travers, "Significant Research on the Prediction of Academic Success," *The Measurement of Student Adjustment and Achievement* (Ann Arbor: Univ. of Mich. Press, 1948), p. 155.

The age range of the population was 17 to 30; 12 students were under 18 and four were over 21 at the time the study was made.

The study population was also characterized in three additional ways. First, these students were admitted on probation. Second, each of these students had worked or was working to achieve the 2.0 scholastic average which would admit him to the college of his choice. Third, each student in the population had been given a course in effective study methods and a course in improvement of reading. There were no statistically significant differences between the transfer and non-transfer groups in scores on tests of scholastic aptitude and achievement.

A semi-structured interview technique was employed to collect the data used in differentiating between the transfer and non-transfer students. The interview schedule was completely memorized, and no prescribed order was followed in the presentation of questions. In an attempt to effect continuity, questions were presented in an order determined by the kind and content of response made by the interviewee. Usually, the first question elicited a simple response, but in many cases a free response was elicited which covered several points of the interview. A check-list of questions was prepared for each interviewee to assure that each question would be covered by the responses of each individual. In all cases, the interviewee was encouraged to free associate on each statement.

After the interviews were recorded and transcribed, 19 protocols were selected from a manually shuffled list and the reports were listed and analyzed. An *a posteriori* coding key was designed to fit these reports.

Upon completion of the coding key, the reports of each interviewee were coded; however, only the first report or first answer to each question was used in the study. The chi-square technique was used to test the significance of any frequency discrepancies existent between the two groups. The calculated chi-square values were interpreted according to R. A. Fisher's table of sampling distribution of chi-square.[3] Chi-square values with probabilities of 0.05 or less were accepted as significant.

Six items differentiated between the transfer and non-transfer groups at less than the 0.01 level of confidence in the vocational area. The vocational area consisted of those items designed to investigate the student's previous work experience, the student's present status in reference to the choice of an occupation, the extent to which the students were personally interested in their selected vocational goals, and the action they were taking to accomplish these vocational goals. In order to investigate these questions, the students were asked:

1. What kind of work have you decided to do?
2. Who influenced you in that choice?
3. If you could pick any job you wanted and were automatically given the necessary qualifications, what would you pick?
4. What is your major?
5. What is your minor?

When the responses to the questions listed above were analyzed, it was found that it was possible to differentiate between transfer and non-transfer students in two different ways. First, it was possible to differentiate on the basis of definiteness of choice, and second, on the basis of attitude toward the choice and the action taken to accomplish the goal. Tabulation of the responses to the question: "What kind of work have you decided to do?" showed that 39 transfer students had made definite vocational choices or were relatively certain of

[3] R. A. Fisher, *Statistical Methods for Research Workers* (10th ed.; Edinburg: Oliver and Boyd, 1948), p. 112.

An important factor with probational students.

their choices as opposed to 25 non-transfer students. More important, however, is the fact that 15 non-transfer students as opposed to two transfer students reported that they were undecided or had made no choice. Analysis of responses to two additional questions: "What have you selected as a major?" and "What have you selected as a minor?," gives further indications that non-transfer students have less often made definite decisions. In relation to definite selection of a major, 15 non-transfer students as opposed to 12 transfer students had not chosen majors. Twenty-seven non-transfer students as opposed to 12 transfer students had not chosen minors.

Personal interest in the chosen goal is indicated by the responses to the next series of questions. When the interviewees' chosen occupations were examined in relation to their most desired occupations it was found that there was no case where a transfer student's desired and chosen occupation did not coincide; there were, conversely, 17 non-transfer students whose chosen and desired occupations did not coincide. Also supporting the hypothesis of personal interest are the responses to the question: "Who influenced you most in that (vocational) choice?" Twenty-six transfer students as opposed to 16 non-transfer students reported that they had built up interest in their chosen occupations. Eighteen non-transfer students compared with six transfer students reported that they had been influenced by family or friends.

One additional item which further indicates personal interest in college training and vocational goal is shown in the degree of coincidence between chosen major and desired occupation. In no case where there was a desired or chosen occupation did a transfer student report that there was no connection between his chosen major and his most-desired occupation; 23 non-transfer students reported non-congruent desired occupations and chosen majors.

From these data several conclusions may be drawn. It appears that the vocational choice is a kind of goal toward which some of the interviewees worked. Others had no such goal orientation. Hilgard[4] states that according to Gestalt theory goals represent end-situation, and as such change learning through the principle of closure. This statement becomes particularly appropriate when it is considered that an attempt was being made to connect the items of the study with success or lack of success in a learning situation.

It has already been pointed out that reports of definiteness of choice of occupation show differentiation between the group which succeeded and the one which did not. The choice or goal orientation, however, is not the complete answer. Goal orientation does not explain why 25 individuals in the non-transfer group, 19 of whom reported that they had selected definite occupations and six of whom reported fairly definite choices, did not succeed. One must know not only whether or not a definite goal had been set, but also how the individual arrived at the decision and what adaptive action he took or was taking in pursuit of that goal.

The degree of coincidence between the chosen and most-desired goal produced some of the most startling differences in the entire study. In no case where there was a chosen and/or desired occupation did a student who had met the criterion of transfer report that there was no connection between his most-desired and chosen occupation. The further importance of the most-desired occupation is shown by the fact that among transfer students there was no instance of training not being directed toward most-desired occupation. It is also interesting to note that in addition to differentiating on the basis of direction of training toward most-desired occupation, definite direction of training itself differentiated between the two groups.

Fairly evident from these data is the importance not only of definiteness of choice by the interviewee, but also of his desiring what he has chosen. Some of the explanations of why a person would choose a life's work which is not to his own best liking are

[4] E. R. Hilgard, *Theories of Learning* (New York: Appleton-Century, 1948), p. 205.

pointed out by the fact that 18 of the non-transfer students reported that they were influenced by family or friends in their decisions. The reasons given by parents are considered here to be superficial reasons. Some individuals reported that their parents told them that a certain occupation is easy, or that it is an easy way to make money. When the additional reports of these interviewees were examined, there were indications that transfer students based their decisions on personal experience. Non-transfer students based their decisions on something other than personal experience. It is also important to note that seven non-transfer students mentioned going into businesses already set up for them. It is possible that such reasons would lessen rather than increase the motivation to work.

It is, therefore, hypothesized that two motivational devices were operating in this situation: (1) the goal itself, or goal orientation; and (2) the student's personal interest in the goal situation, or goal involvement. Together these are called goal aspiration. The goal hypothesis is supported by the responses to questions which point out the effectiveness of definiteness of selection of goal. The final goal or selection did not, however, seem to be the entire answer. It is conceivable that selection of major and minor constituted one intermediate goal which was closer and consequently a more effective motivating device than graduation from college. Graduation from college, in its turn, may be more immediate and consequently more effective than successful attainment of the occupational goal. The second, or personal-interest, hypothesis is supported by those items which compare the definite choice with the desired choices, and the reported influences brought to bear upon the individual in his selection of occupation. One would suppose that when an individual picks an occupation of his own choosing, he will be more interested in it than if someone else had suggested it to him. One may disagree with the names assigned to these two areas. The reports of the individuals, however, indicate that two dimensions of goal aspiration, which for convenience are called goal orientation and goal involvement, were operating and were powerful motivating devices which helped to determine the success or failure of these students.

AGE CERTIFICATE AND WORK PERMIT TRENDS

The upward trend in requests for age certificates (issued to workers who are from 16 to 20 years of age) and for work permits (for those 14 or 15 years of age) continues in Chicago. In January, 1953, the increase in age certificates was 19 per cent over the corresponding month of 1952 (2061 vs. 1739) and the increase in work permits was 50 per cent (128 vs. 84).

The total number of age certificates and work permits issued during 1952 was 36,391. This is considerably higher than the 32,428 issued in 1951 and the 24,333 issued in 1950. While it is true that educational campaigns result in some additional employers seeking the protection of certification, the major factor in the increase is the increasing demand for teen-age workers.—*Chicago Guidance Newsletter* (February, 1953).

vocational GUIDANCE in Germany

CLIFFORD P. FROEHLICH and FRANK G. DAVIS

THIS BRIEF report on vocational guidance in Germany is designed to bring up to date the comprehensive report of Franklin J. Keller in the April, 1948, issue of *Occupations*. It is based upon visits to Germany one or the other of the authors made in 1948, 1951, and 1952; an incomplete review of current German literature, and personal consultation with German nationals visiting America.

In contrast with conditions at the time of Keller's report, the economic situation in Germany is now very favorable. The industrial production index is now 159, in 1948 it was 56 (1936 = 100). This phenomenal increase is due in part to working conditions. Hours in some industries are long, with union approval and overtime pay; for example, some workers' regular work schedule is 54 hours per week. Wages are low, $25 a week for a skilled craftsman is fairly typical. Food consumption is still below prewar days, but most workers have an adequate diet. Unemployment is spotty. Professional workers have streamed into West Germany from the Russian zone. One estimate, for example, is a surplus of 5000 physicians. On the other hand, teachers for elementary schools experience little difficulty in securing positions. The labor shortages that exist are in many cases due to causes other than the lack of trained personnel. Working conditions and other factors probably account for the shortage of miners, rather than a lack of persons qualified for the job. The unemployment picture varies also by region. Berlin, for example, as a result of the Russian stranglehold on that city, in addition to thousands of refugees, has an acute unemployment problem. On the other hand, there is little unemployment in the Ruhr. In general, however, the labor market in Germany appears to be nearing a satisfactory balance between supply and demand.

These conditions have changed the vocational guidance picture which Keller described as "nobody knows what the future of German economy will be . . . therefore it will be impossible to help children choose occupations in which there will be real opportunity." The future, provided that at least a "coldwar peace" is maintained, will probably see Germany as a strong industrial nation with inadequate agricultural resources to feed itself. International trade is necessary for continued German prosperity. If Germany can continue on its present economic course, the internal economy should be relatively stable. When these assumptions are made, then it follows that German vocational guidance workers should be able to predict occupational trends as efficiently and accurately as the Occupational Outlook Series of the United States Department of Labor.

The agency which will most likely emerge in Germany as the reporter of occupational trends is the public employment service. This agency (*Arbeitsamt*) is now, as in prewar days, actively engaged in constructing a vocational guidance program. It must be recognized, however, that placement of adults and payment of unemployment benefits are the major activities of the *Arbeitsamt*. These latter activities should, however, yield as by-products data which would make a contribution to the prediction of occupational trends.

The vocational guidance activities of the

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Arbeitsamt are of three types: dissemination of information, psychological testing, and advisement. The dissemination of occupational information is frequently a cooperative venture with the schools. Career conferences such as those commonly held by schools in the United States are becoming more usual in Germany. A difference was noted however, in that the employment service took the major responsibility for arranging the conference, securing the speakers, and so forth, with the schools playing the passive role of providing the pupils and meeting rooms. From school administrators one gathers that this passive role is not the result of apathy but stems from a belief that *Arbeitsamt* personnel are better qualified than school personnel for the task. Publications dealing with occupational opportunities were nonexistent except for occasional articles in official reports and house organs.

Psychological testing varies greatly from one employment service to another. In the most elaborate setups one finds a wide variety of apparatus tests, some of ingenious design. Little had been done to develop normative data, to say nothing of determining validity. A person's performance on the tests is subjectively evaluated by the psychologists who prepare an evaluative summary for the vocational adviser. The lack of standardized tests is a terrific handicap to vocational guidance in Germany. Fortunately, the last few years have seen the rebirth of interest in developing standardized tests, not only for measuring intelligence but for other purposes as well. A study of the status of testing in Germany, made by one of the authors, will be reported separately. At this point it is sufficient to recognize that vocational advisers do not deal with actual test data but rely wholly upon an interpretation of test performance made by a psychologist.

Vocational advisement is the third aspect of the *Arbeitsamt*'s program selected for comment. The term "advisement" was chosen because it connotes the giving of advice in a rather direct manner. "Counseling" with its connotation of permissiveness, self-evaluation, and individual responsibility, is inappropriate for the process which takes place in the employment office guidance interviews. These interviews are usually very short, perhaps five or ten minutes might be considered a long interview. Here is a stenographic report of a typical interview. The pupil had come to the employment office in order to secure assignment as an apprentice. The adviser had a questionnaire completed by the pupil, a health report, and transcript of the school record together with teacher comments.

Adviser: What is your name?
Pupil: E— P—.
Adviser: Which grade are you in?
Pupil: The ninth grade.
Adviser: What do you want to learn?
Pupil: Sewing.
Adviser: What do you understand by sewing? Do you mean to become a tailor apprentice with three years of apprenticeship, or to become a semiskilled sewer for which you must learn one year and a half?
Pupil: I'd like to become a semiskilled sewer.
Adviser: How many sisters and brothers do you have, and what are their occupations?
Pupil: Four sisters and one brother 9 years of age. One of the sisters is a hairdresser, one is a salesgirl, one is married, and one still goes to school.
Adviser: Which bad grade did you get in your last report?
Pupil: I don't know.
Adviser: But you should know. Wasn't it spelling that you had a 4 in? (There are 5 grades, 1 is highest and 5 is lowest.)
Pupil: Yes, that is true.
Adviser: But you ought to learn it, you see because you will need it in all final examinations and it makes quite a difference in your passing the examinations. Where do you want to learn sewing, here in (name of town)?
Pupil: Yes, that is right.
Adviser: How far is your home from (name of another town)?
Pupil: Three to four kilometers.
Adviser: Then it will be better for you to work in (name of first town). All right, I will see where I can place you and you will be informed then.

The above picture of guidance in the employment office is not a pretty one. Unfortunately, it is not likely to be changed until it is possible to secure more and

trained advisers. In view of the tremendous case load carried by advisers, it seems impossible for them to devote more than a few minutes to each advisee. A contributing factor may be that their lack of specialized guidance training makes them insensitive to the superficiality of their advice. There is no university in Germany which offers professional training for guidance workers. Advisers are, therefore, recruited from a variety of occupations, not all of which require the equivalent of a bachelor's degree.

In contrast with the pessimistic report of Keller regarding guidance in German schools, it is believed that great progress has been made. A month-long workshop on guidance in German schools in the Summer of 1951 attracted prominent educators from all parts of Western Germany and Berlin. True, the workshop was sponsored by the Office of the United States High Commissioner for Germany. Nevertheless, the participants came during their vacation time without pay to study a field of work new to them. A report on the meeting was widely circulated in Germany. An informal follow-up of some participants by one of the authors in 1952, indicated that they were applying many of the things learned at the workshop. Also, in the Summer of 1952, an educational psychology workshop under German auspices developed two reports on guidance procedures for German schools. We have not learned of the appointment of a counselor in a public school, but we believe that classroom teachers are being given, and are willingly accepting guidance responsibilities.

Keller made no mention of guidance activities at the university level. A study of several prominent universities indicates that much which is called student personnel work here in America is cared for by *Studentenwerke* (student welfare), and *ASTA* (student government organization). Student loans, health service, orientation, part-time employment, student housing, and so forth, are services provided by special fees collected from students. The university as such assumes no official responsibility for such activities, but rather lets quasi-official student welfare and government organizations handle them. One development in guidance activities is particularly noteworthy. At the university in Hamburg, a part-time counselor was appointed in the Fall of 1952. The rector (chief executive) of this university has given active support to the experimental appointment, the first counselor in a German university.

In conclusion, we believe that the greatest change which has come to Germany since Keller's report, is a basic attitude toward the integrity and worth of individuals. This attitude leaves little room for false ideologies which plagued the German nation during Hitler's time. We believe that Germany is overcoming the Nazi desire to use vocational guidance as a device to make sure that each individual contributed most to the state. German vocational guidance workers are working hard to re-establish their earlier tradition of serving individuals.

IS IT HAPPENING HERE?

I believe that that community is already in process of dissolution where each man begins to eye his neighbor as a possible enemy, where nonconformity with the accepted creed, political as well as religious, is a mark of disaffection; where denunciation, without specification or backing, takes the place of evidence; where orthodoxy chokes freedom of dissent; where faith in the eventual supremacy of reason has become so timid that we dare not enter our convictions in the open lists to win or lose.—Judge Learned Hand quoted in *Social Progress*.

Can CHEATING Be Killed?

THIS IS THE RECORD of a student project carried out over a period of years by the Board of Standards of the Associated Women Students who were concerned about the ever present campus problem of cheating in examinations. It is a realistic attempt to study the origins of attitudes and practices and to take the most feasible steps in correcting them.[1]

Every student is aware that in some classes cheating is very prevalent, while in others there is little or no dishonest work. The Board members therefore made a careful survey of student opinion and experiences and under the heading "Factors which encourage cheating" they listed all possible characteristics of those classes in which cheating was at its worst, and under "Factors which discourage cheating" the conditions which described the classroom situations in which cheating was at a minimum. Those two lists were carefully organized to bring out the important contrasts, and were included in a letter sent to all faculty members. The two lists, in the student's own words are here quoted:

Factors Which Affect Cheating

Encourage Honesty	*Encourage Cheating*
(1) Frequent tests or exercises or recitations throughout course.	(1) Grade depends solely or largely upon examination.
(2) Exam questions well fitted to the material covered in course.	(2) Tricky or unusual questions which have the effect of making the student feel panic-striken or give him a sense of unfairness.
(3) Final class period devoted to review or outline or to sample examination questions. (Some professors especially commended for this.)	(3) Threatening or superior attitude of instructor toward examinations. Students do not take it kindly when faculty members joke about exams.
(4) Important points stressed and questions made interesting.	(4) Uncertain coverage of work, poorly constructed tests, lack of interest in mechanics of teaching on part of professor.
(5) Professor proctors his own examination. Good rapport and mutual respect between instructor and student is one of the most important factors in honesty.	(5) Lack of good rapport between proctor and student. Mutual respect is damaged when an assistant is sent to proctor and completely and utterly lost when small sections are sent to one large central room for examinations, under paid proctors, *e.g.*, Sociology 101, English Composition, Chemistry, and Psychology 101.
(6) Essay questions in general.	(6) Objective exams in general, especially one - word - answer questions.
(7) Small classes, personal contacts with instructors.	(7) Large lecture courses and courses with a series of lecturers.
(8) Instructor walks around the room occasionally, or	(8) Courses in which the examination is made by commit-

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[1] The project was carried on while the writer was Dean of Women and adviser for the governing groups, at Indiana University.

KATE HEVNER MUELLER reports on a student campaign against dishonest work.

otherwise shows his own sense of responsibility in the examination.

tees long in advance, with a consequent sporting challenge to students for securing a copy.

Publicity for the educational campaign of the women students through the easy channel of the student newspaper was rejected in favor of a method which would not fail to reach every woman student. The power of the Associated Women Students was invoked and on one day in the week immediately preceding the final examination period, all women students were required to attend one of 48 meetings planned for that day. The times and places for these meetings were made as convenient as possible, *e.g.*, at 7:00 P.M. or at 10:30 P.M. in the chapter houses and residence halls. For students who lived at home or in small rooming houses, meetings were held at 1:00, 3:00, 5:00, 7:00, and 9:00 P.M. in the Student Union Building.

From 30 to 40 student speakers were trained to preside and lead discussion at these meetings. They went to the meetings in pairs, with their arguments carefully written out in advance. They first read the faculty rules for the conduct of examinations and the penalties for cheating. They made it clear that many penalties are given for cheating, but are not generally known, because the Administration Officers, in consideration for the individual student, never publicize such cases. They recounted a few sample cases: the student whose F for cheating in chemistry kept her out of the Nurses Training School; two students who had been dropped for stealing and trying to sell an English examination; a student who was penalized for plagiarizing, etc. They gave information about the files of examination questions available in the library (as well as in private collections in chapter houses) and the wise use of these questions. Next, they invited questions and suggestions and discussion on the best methods of study, on the hygiene of exam week, and finally on the advantages and disadvantages of cheating. These student speakers in their training group discussion had listed the arguments which seemed to them most effective. In turn, they tried to bring out these same arguments in their own groups.

Later reports showed varying success. In some groups, there were students who argued that "everybody cheats on this campus; nobody seems to care, and nobody seems to expect honesty." The leaders had agreed that the best answer to this challenge was to call on the individual students to mention or describe from their own experience all the classes in which there had been no cheating. Usually this was successful, and at least it brought the students with the better attitudes into the discussion. The leaders had agreed that the attitude "It's all right to cheat because everybody else does" was the worst enemy to their campaign. The best arguments they could marshal against it were:

> "This is rationalizing, arguing yourself into the weaker and easier thing because you aren't strong enough to stand up for what you know is right."

> "We aren't asking you to reform any one else, nor even to discuss or argue the matter with anyone. We are simply asking you in your own behavior to live up to your own inner convictions."

Whether or not the group had proved hostile or sympathetic, the leaders at the end of the hour summarized the arguments which had been developed at the training group discussion.

The Solicitation of Faculty Assistance

The student board members drew up a letter which was delivered to each faculty member, not through the mail, but personally by one of his own students who had volunteered to help with the project. The letter outlined the procedure for educating the students, and added:

> We are sending you (1) suggestions which from the students' point of view have an effect for or against cheating. We would value any comments or criticisms which you may have to offer. Although we recognize that cheating is primarily a student problem, we feel that our campaign will not succeed if faculty members remain indifferent to it.
>
> Because the instructor knows personally only his

own better and more advanced students and sees them at their best he is likely to forget that he must also be prepared to deal with a much larger group of students who are more mediocre in intelligence, background and social consciousness. The issue is not faculty versus students, but faculty and students versus the few unscrupulous ones whose intention is merely to make undeservedly high grades, or to make money from the examinations.

Not only poor students cheat, but competition is sometimes even more ruthless among the very good students.

The instructor who gives the smallest attention or who feels most superior to the unpleasant details of proctoring, etc., may be the one in whose classes cheating is most flagrant.

The instructor who proctors his examination carefully is protecting the good and honest students as well as policing the dishonest.

If you use "completion" questions requiring only one word to be written into a blank space, take pains with the seating and proctoring of the students to prevent copying.

Never have stencils cut or questions typed by student assistants. Is it fair to put such students "on the spot?" Temptation may be too strong to resist.

After questions are mimeographed, keep them at home. Duplicate and skeleton keys for desks and offices are ridiculously easy to obtain.

Statements made by students which indicate faculty attitudes they do not like:

He just walks around with a sneer on his face the whole examination period.

I asked him about the exam and he said, 'You don't need to worry; you will flunk it anyway.'

He has used the same exam for three years. It's on file at our house.

He's just plain dumb. He sits up there in front and the boys in the back have their notes in their pockets, and do they use them!

If he was going to give me that F for cheating he shouldn't have made that facetious remark about cheating at the beginning of the examination.

In addition to these general letters delivered by the student committee members to all faculty members, eight special letters were sent by the Board of Standards to the eight instructors in whose classes cheating was thought to be most flagrant. The letter to the instructor merely called attention to the fact that their survey pointed to a particularly bad situation in his classes. They asked for his especial consideration of their suggestions.

Making Sample Examination Available to All Students

It is well known that sorority and fraternity houses keep files of all examination questions from year to year for use of their members. It is also agreed that the study of previous examinations is a legitimately useful device for giving a student a good review of his course. Realizing that all fraternity members possess an unfair advantage over the non-fraternity students, the Board members arranged for a file of examination questions to be established in the Reference Room of the library, and to be properly indexed and administered by the library staff. Students who had volunteered for this work were given training in soliciting from the faculty, were assigned to the departments of their major subjects, and had unusual success in securing copies of examinations.

Education on better methods in preparing for and taking examinations was undertaken for the freshmen women only, by means of an attractive four-page pamphlet, written by Board members and decorated with comic line drawings, and distributed to all new students. From year to year the examination fears were dubbed "heebie jeebies," "fifth columnists" and "gremlins." They were represented as spreading the hysteria: "I flunked it flat," "It was simply fiendish," "I studied all night and he never asked a *thing* he said he would," "The questions were not the kind I'd even seen before," "I'm just going to lock my door and start reading the whole book," "Nobody had any idea what the questions meant," "I could have written two hours on just the first question," etc. The caption "Watch these stories grow and next time don't believe them," was set over a series of six cartoons showing the progress of the rumor from "Joe says he carried his book to the exam, and prof never noticed it," to "The whole class cheated!" Helpful hints about studying were incorporated in various ways, sometimes in informal letters from hypo-

thetical students to "Mom and Pop." They were summarized on the final page:

Some Facts You Should Know

About Cheating

You won't change your grade enough to justify the risk you take:

The risk: An F in the course with "Failed for Cheating" noted on your record.

The result: Maybe a B instead of a C, and maybe not.

If "everybody" tells you that "everybody" cheats and that makes it all right for you:

Maybe you're keeping bad company?

And Studying

Never miss your eight hours of sleep.

Lack of sleep undermines your physical energy and your ability to think clearly; it takes both to write a good exam, no matter how much you know.

Don't plan to study *all* the time.

Relax both mind and body by participation in things you enjoy, movies, games, walking, shopping.

Plan your week's work carefully.

For some courses you study one way, for others another way, sometimes alone, sometimes with others, sometimes in your room, sometimes in the library.

Suppose you are a little excited and jittery over the exam.

What of it? After all, don't you do a little better work when you're excited about it? Most people do, and psychologists agree that physiologically it's helpful.

Evaluation of Success

Studies show that dishonest work is characteristic of students on practically every type of campus.[2] It has been suggested that if an objective measure could be found for the amount of dishonest work for each student, the results would follow the normal curve. An informal student pool of about 900 students a few years earlier had indicated that there is some slight deterioration in standards in the transition from freshman to senior year. For example, to the question "If offered information in an examination, would you accept and use it?" the proportions answering in the affirmative are: Freshmen 36 per cent, Sophomores 37 per cent, Juniors 37 per cent, Seniors 46 per cent. To the question "Would you copy from another paper if you had the opportunity?" the affirmative answers are: Freshmen 17 per cent, Sophomores 23 per cent, Juniors 25 per cent, Seniors 22 per cent. Whether or not the student would actually conduct himself as indicated, is of course questionable, but there is at least a greater frankness in expressing the undesirable attitude from the freshman to the senior year.

To many students, "cribbing" in examinations (they avoid the word "cheating") is not regarded as an ethical problem, but rather as a technique, sometimes desirable, sometimes unfeasible, for "getting by" in the intricate campus system of examinations and grading, and in the extra-curricular merit system which requires an acceptable grade average for office holding.

Non-attendance at the required meetings was negligible, and the discussions were lively, if not altogether convincing. The librarians reported a very large use of the examination files collected by the students. No objective methods for measuring the success of the campaign were employed because of the difficulty of devising and carrying out such methods.

Student leaders have learned: (1) more efficient methods of putting their convictions into effect; (2) the importance of the careful preparation of new students to meet campus problems and (3) the deteriorating effect on moral standards which results from the too impersonal situation and the loss of the personal touch. Some weaker students have perhaps strengthened their wavering convictions through the arguments presented to them. All students who participated in any part of the campaign were made aware of the ethical considerations, more sophisticated in their approach to ethical problems.

[2] Ruth Strang, *Behavior and Background of Students in College and Secondary Schools*, (Harper, 1937) 62–91.

notes from

OUR BRANCHES

• The Oregon Guidance Association met jointly with the Special Education Section of the Oregon Education Association on March 16 at the OEA convention. The topic for the meeting was the gifted student, and Karl D. Ernst, Administrative Director, Gifted Child Project, Portland Public Schools, was the speaker. Some of the teachers engaged in this project explained the specific programs in the individual schools where the project is being carried on.

• The mid-winter meeting of the Northern New Jersey Region of the New Jersey Guidance and Personnel Association was held on March 3 at Fairleigh Dickinson College, Rutherford, New Jersey. At the afternoon sessions, panels discussed "Aptitude Testing," Counseling Boys and Girls for the Armed Services," "Showing of Guidance Films," and "Evaluating Part-Time Work." Edward Herbert chaired a general session on "Developing Responsibility—A Code of Citizenship."

• At the February 9 meeting of the Worcester, Massachusetts Branch of the National Vocational Guidance Association, a panel that got down to cases presented "Guidance Procedures in the Community Chest Organizations." Executive secretaries and superintendents from Worcester's YMCA, YWCA, Girls' Club and Boys' Club stressed, by citing cases and summarizing results, how group work can be therapeutic as well as recreational in the lives of youngsters, young adults, and even retired employees who seek avocational outlets. Chairman of the panel was Robert S. Cahill, the Chest's Assistant Executive and President of the Social Service "Monday Evening Club." Miss Gretchen Frye, Director of Girls' Club's Lincoln House arranged this program which evoked the widest audience participation of all meetings held during the season.

Who's Who

Following his discharge from the Army where he was connected with the U. S. Army Hospital, Ft. Benning, Georgia, ALLEN R. LEVIN has taken a position as Counseling Psychologist with the Veterans Administration Medical Teaching Group Hospital, Memphis, Tennessee.

The counseling services of David Lipscomb College, Nashville, Tennessee, have recently been reorganized. The new Student Guidance Service is under the directorship of KENNETH R. PIETY, SR. of the Psychology faculty and JAMES H. MCBROOM, JR. of the Sociology faculty.

LEE E. ISAACSON has left the Guidance Bureau at the University of Kansas to take a position as Assistant Professor of Education at Purdue University. RICHARD M. RUNDQUIST succeeds him as Assistant Professor of Education and Counselor at the University of Kansas.

HERBERT RUSALEM, who was recently promoted to the post of Assistant Executive Director, Federation of the Handicapped, has accepted the post of Assistant Professor of Education in the Graduate School of Long Island University, Brooklyn, New York.

Associate Editor MEL HARDEE of this JOURNAL received the following citation in the January, 1953, *Newsletter* of the Southern College Personnel Association: "For her outstanding achievements in editing the SCPA Newsletter during the past year, Doctor Melvene Hardee is hereby awarded the Personnelitzer Prize in Association journalism for 1952."

occupations
techniques
personalities
conferences

CURRENT NEWS

Children's Bureau Project on Juvenile Delinquency

The Children Bureau of the Federal Securtiy Agency has organized a campaign to get at the facts of juvenile delinquency, its prevention and treatment; to set forth new statements of desirable practices in the care of delinquent children; to arouse the public to find out what is happening to delinquent children in local communities; to take steps to improve the practices that are not up to standard; and to encourage local, state, and national agencies which deal with the problem to work in closer cooperation with each other.

A special Juvenile Delinquency Project, financed by private contributions to the Child Welfare League of America, has been formed and is giving strong impetus to the objectives of this campaign. Although this special campaign and project is putting emphasis on improving the care and treatment of delinquent children, attention is also being directed toward measures for preventing delinquency. The Children's Bureau has issued a report describing the program and suggesting that community groups be organized to include representatives of the local child welfare agency, the health and education departments, the juvenile court, the police, the churches, businessmen's associations, labor unions, and women's clubs and youth serving organizations.

On the basis of fingerprint arrest data gathered by the Federal Bureau of Investigation, the number of children under 18 who were arrested for auto theft went up 61 per cent from 1948 to 1951. The number of children arrested for burglary—breaking and entering—increased 15 per cent; arrests of children on robbery charges, 25 per cent. Assault arrests increased 10 per cent over the period.

The Children's Bureau has received reports from 179 juvenile courts located in many parts of the country which show that the number of juvenile delinquency cases they handled increased by close to 20 per cent from 1948 through 1951. Some courts reported the number of cases they handled went up as much as 30 per cent, a few even more than 50 per cent.

A recent study of 177 cities, all having populations of more than 25,000, showed that almost half have no special units or bureaus in their police departments staffed with officers trained in handling children's problems.

The Children's Bureau has issued three pamphlets dealing with the problem of juvenile delinquency which may be obtained at no cost. These pamphlets are: *Some Facts about Juvenile Delinquency; Projects for Community Action to Aid Delinquent Children;* and *Juvenile Delinquency Program of the Children's Bureau.*

Facts About Psychologists

In the fall of 1951 the number of clinical psychologists was about three times the number of those in any other specialty, according to facts reported to the American Psychological Association by its members and published by the U. S. Office of Education. Clinical psychologists outnumbered all those working as educational, industrial, experimental, and vocational psychologists, the next four largest groups of psychologists. Men outnumbered women in all specialties except one—developmental.

More than half the psychologists worked in educational institutions, more than a fourth in government, and the remainder in

industry. Of those in educational institutions, five-sixths were in colleges and universities.

More than a third of the psychologists were teaching and about a fifth were in consulting or clinical practice. Of the remainder, nearly equal numbers were engaged in management or administration, inspection and clinical analysis, and research and development.

More than half the psychologists had a Ph.D. degree and more than a third had a master's degree. About half of those with a Ph.D. degree were teaching.

Median annual earnings ranged from $7,500 for industrial psychologists to $5,200 for developmental psychologists. In relation to educational training, the median salary was $6,500 for psychologists with a Ph.D. degree, $4,800 for those with a master's degree, and $4,700 for those having only a bachelor's degree. Median earnings in all specialties and functions were higher for men than for women.

Further details about psychologists may be found in the U. S. Office of Education Information Bulletin No. 5, November 3, 1952.

Manufacturing Chemists to Provide More Occupational Information

An accelerated program has been started by the student guidance committee of the Manufacturing Chemists' Association to make more information available to students on opportunities and preparation for careers in the industry. The stepped-up program is based on the results of a survey conducted by the Manufacturing Chemists' Association which indicates that three out of four high school and junior high science teachers want more such information in order to advise students about the chemical and chemical engineering professions.

Teachers want data on types of jobs available in the industry at all levels of skill, high school and college training required, salary levels, and chances for advancement, the survey revealed. They would also welcome plant tours for students and classroom talks by industry representatives.

Wisconsin University Women Graduates Surveyed

A survey of 500 women who graduated from the University of Wisconsin in 1952 has revealed that 371 are employed in 74 different fields including teaching, banking, insurance, aviation, department stores, community and social service agencies, government, libraries, laboratories, communications, journalism, home economics, and hospital and medical services. Only 38 per cent of the 132 who were married at the time of the survey were not employed.

Better than one out of four of the graduates went into teaching and one-third went into professional and managerial work. Only one out of six took clerical and general office jobs. The average earnings of the Wisconsin 1952 women graduates, exclusive of teachers, was $230 monthly. The average salary for teachers was $240 monthly.

New York Hobby Show for Older Persons

The Welfare and Health Council of New York City holds its Seventh Annual Hobby Show for Older Persons, May 21–31, at Education Hall, American Museum of Natural History, 77th Street and Central Park West.

Aims of the show are threefold: to give older men and women a chance to show and to share their interests and hobbies; to demonstrate how wide and how varied are the creative interests of older people; and to help improve welfare and health agency programs, stimulate interagency cooperation and awaken public interest in the creative potentialities of older persons.

Participation in the show is open to any person, 60 years of age or over, who has a hobby, interest or talent, and lives in New York or within a radius of 60 miles. Any type of exhibit demonstrating any kind of skill, but not intended for commercial or advertising purposes, may be entered. Exhibits are limited to two per person and all items exhibited must be current or completed within the past few years. Those whose hobbies are performances, such as

music, dramatics or dancing, are also invited to participate. Further information may be obtained from the Welfare and Health Council, 44 East 23rd Street, New York 10, New York.

Human Relations Workshop at Kent State University

Kent State University is offering its first Workshop in Human Relations this summer from July 13 to July 31. As a step toward meeting the need for specialized and tested knowledge in the field of human relations, the workshop will consider problems of educational administration, librarianship, guidance and counseling, audio-visual programs, and school-community relations. The three-week program will be given as a credit or non-credit course, and will be open to both scholarship and non-scholarship students. Forty scholarships to cover the $70 workshop fee are available from the National Conference of Christians and Jews, 686 Union Commerce Building, Cleveland, Ohio. All inquiries concerning the workshop should be addressed to the Director, Gerald Read, College of Education, Kent State University, Kent, Ohio.

Colorado Summer Guidance Workshop

This coming summer the Workshop in Guidance at the University of Colorado will be held on June 22 through 26. As usual, enrollment will be limited to 35. Clarence W. Failor, Acting Associate Professor and Field Representative in Guidance will be the director and any inquiries should be addressed to him. Frank L. Sievers of the U. S. Office of Education will be the consultant.

Assistance for Graduate Students in Guidance

Southern Illinois University announces several oportunities for financial assistance to graduate students interested in practical training and experience in guidance and personnel. These offers, available to both men and women, include fifteen to twenty positions for resident fellows and four to six graduate assistantships in Guidance and Special Education. Students may apply for both an assistantship and a position as housefellow, but such a program will require a reduced academic load.

For further information about the resident fellow positions, write to the Office of Student Affairs; for the assistantships, write to the Chairman of the Guidance and Special Education Department, Southern Illinois University, Carbondale, Illinois.

Florida Deans Discuss School Guidance Problems

"Getting to Know Boys and Girls" was the theme of the second annual Florida Conference of Guidance and Personnel Deans held at Florida A&M College, February 19–21. The keynote address of the conference was made by Harold F. Cottingham, Professor of Psychology and Counselor Training Officer, Florida State University who spoke on the subject, "Integrating Guidance in the Elementary School with Secondary School and the Home." Group discussions included: "Using Judgment Making Devices" discussed by William N. Smith, Head of the Psychology Department, Florida A&M College; "The Case Study" discussed by A. A. Abraham, Head of the Secondary Education Department, Florida A&M College; Anders Sweetland, Clinical Psychologist, Florida State University, spoke on "The Clinical Approach to Children Problems"; Margaret Blair, Assistant Director, Vocational Guidance and Placement, Florida State University, talked on "Presenting Occupational Information." A panel consisting of Melvene Hardee, Coordinator of Counseling, Florida State University; Gar Wynn, Graduate Student, Florida State University; W. E. Combs and Minnie H. Fields, both of the Florida State Department of Education, discussed "Problems in Guidance with Implications for Florida Schools." Some 73 persons attended the conference representing 18 cities, some 25 elementary and secondary schools and four of the state's institutions of higher learning.

YOU MIGHT LIKE TO SEE . . .

Films Depicting Mental Illness*

Introducing graduate and advanced undergraduate students in psychology, social work, guidance, medicine, and other professional areas in which interpersonal contacts are important and the understanding of personal problems crucial, to experience with people with real problems is difficult, time-consuming, and not without some dangers. There is not only the integrity of the client to be considered but there is also the factor of student over-involvement in the problems of the client and his own state and level of adjustment to consider.

There is a long tradition in medicine and in social work of plunging the student more or less directly into work with clients having serious problems—but with copious and adequate supervision. The better graduate programs in clinical psychology and counseling provide such experience too, although there exists some problem of adequate internship facilities.

The problem of showing students the more severe aspects and types of human personality disorder is a difficult pedagogical one from both temporal and ethical considerations. The use of selected recordings of interviews and test protocols, of case histories, and of films saves much time. Of these devices, the one with the potential for approaching a real face-to-face interaction most closely is the sound film.

Certainly present also is the ethical problem involved in the use of patients. The American Psychological Association Committee on Ethical Standards for Psychology has commented on this in its Principle 6.22-1: *Live clinical material (guidance center clients, hospital patients, etc.) should be used for demonstration or instructional purposes only when appropriately printed, recorded, motion picture or other standard material is not available or readily prepared, or when the advanced level and professional nature of the instruction makes it essential.*[1] This principle certainly suggests that the visit to state hospitals for nervous and mental diseases, long a high point in some college courses in abnormal psychology, probably should cease, and that as reasonably adequate films are available, it should cease now.

Readers of this JOURNAL will be familiar with such first-rate films as *Angry Boy* and *This is Robert* and the methods by which provocative and meaningful discussion can be made to grow out of the common experience of viewing them. *Hypnotic Behavior* and *Unconscious Motivation,* Lester Beck's well-produced films on an experimental neurosis, are probably used by most psychology and psychiatry departments. These films illustrate vividly and neatly within the limits of the medium, aspects of maladaptive behavior or behavior under unusual circumstances.

Reviewed at this time is a series of sound films, nine in number, illustrating important features of seriously disordered behavior in hospitalized patients. They are designed for professionally qualified audiences only. All are produced by the National Film Board of Canada and distributed as McGraw-Hill Text Films by the McGraw-Hill Book Company. Each is prefaced by a statement admonishing the viewer to remember that the film illustrates mental symptoms and not techniques of examination, of interviewing, or of diagnosis. Each begins with an introduction by Dr. Heinz Lehmann, who gives some highlights of the disorder being considered and a few sentences about the onset of the disorder in the particular patients being interviewed. Then he interviews the patient. These are they:

1. *Schizophrenia: simple type deteriorated* (11 minutes)—A forty year old woman, psychotic for ten years, shows typical apathy, indifference, inappropriate emotional response, and lack of initiative, although she is fairly well oriented and her memory is good.

* This is a solicited discussion and review by Walter L. Wilkins, Chairman, Department of Psychology, St. Louis University.

[1] APA Committee on Ethical Standards for Psychology. "Section 6. Ethical Standards in Teaching," *American Psychologist;* VI (1951), 649–661.

2. *Schizophrenia: catatonic type* (12 minutes)—Three male stuporous catatonics hospitalized from five to fifteen years, illustrate the paucity of movement, waxy flexibility, mutism, and negativism of the classical case, but also show that they are aware of the environment.

3. *Schizophrenia: hebephrenic type* (13 minutes)—A male patient, hospitalized thirteen years, is interviewed twice, showing marked intellectual deterioration, silly mannerisms, poverty of ideas, irrelevant and incoherent speech, hallucinations.

4. *Paranoid conditions* (13 minutes)—Two women, one acute and the other chronic, show different phases of the disease. The acute patient has a delusional system involving government and religion and is disturbed enough so that she has not eaten nor slept recently. The logic-resistant aspects of the paranoid process are evident.

5. *Organic reaction-type—senile* (10 minutes)—Disorientation, memory defects, brief attention span, perseveration of ideas and confabulation are shown in two patients, a man and a woman.

6. *Depressive states I* (12 minutes)—A male, middle-aged agitated depressive in an evening interview looks depressed and dejected and tells of his feelings of hopelessness and sinfulness. The next morning he is worse, being more depressed and shows marked motor agitation.

7. *Depressive states II* (11 minutes)—A woman who has attempted suicide twice within the last week or ten days is interviewed to illustrate how the depression has built up to a suicidal point. Another older woman, competent, lively, and cheerful up to two months before, illustrates a severe, retarded depression.

8. *Manic state* (15 minutes)—A middle-aged woman shows the over-activity, talkativeness, and mood changes of the typical hypomanic.

9. *Folie à deux* (15 minutes)—A mother and daughter, the latter being the dominant personality, are interviewed together, and simultaneously explain to the doctor the features of their delusional system, in which other people have powers of hurting them magically, with the mother insisting on a witchcraft explanation and the daughter, while too sophisticated to believe in witches, is unable to give any explanation of the mysterious forces, but is patently the sicker of the two.

These films show, in a time period which would be impossible within the hospital, the salient features of severe mental illness. Obviously the cases are chosen to show these features clearly. These are real patients, real individuals with problems students can for the most part get some insight into and in some cases actually empathize with. It is, of course, impossible to show how complex the problems of these patients are, but it is perhaps only the advanced student involved in diagnosis and in therapy who can fully realize such complexity anyway.

We showed these films to advanced undergraduates in sections of abnormal psychology and to medical school juniors. Both groups of students found the experience rewarding. The psychology majors found the *Folie à deux* the most dramatic film. They also were edified by the reactions of the depressives. The medical school students found particularly noteworthy the case of agitated depression. Many students come up to their clerkships with the notion, easily gained from standard textbooks, that all depressive patients are retarded, or at least lugubrious and just plain depressed. The behavior of the middle-aged patient brought home to them the essentially depressive nature of the agitated patient.

We had the impression that the recording of the introductory didactic materials was better than that during the actual interviewing of the patients for Numbers 1, 3, 5, and 8, but some of our difficulty may have resulted from the patients' mumbling—especially the aged patients. For the specified purposes of showing to undergraduate medical students, to advanced students in psychology, social work, pastoral psychology, and counseling these films can be strongly recommended. They economize on time necessary for explanation of these disorders and for demonstration also. They illustrate somewhat more neatly than the run-of-the-mill case can, the typical features of the disorder. They enable the instructor to bring right into the classroom an experience which would be most difficult to handle directly. And finally they have the pedagogical advantage that they can be shown again and again to illustrate different aspects of patient behavior. As with most curricular materials they over-simplify—but such is justifiable for pedagogic clarity.

YOU MIGHT LIKE TO READ . . .

■ An intriguing projective technique built around the use of a collection of 240 proverbs is described in the winter, 1952, *Personnel Psychology*. In an article called "A Proverb Test for Attitude Measurement" the use of this method is reported with 98 Swiss workers in a large industrial firm in an attempt to obtain a group picture of their feelings concerning justice, remuneration, social relationships, ethical values, work techniques, the effect of work and suitable conduct. The proverb test is suggested as an improvement over questionnaires and the Rorschach and Szondi tests.

■ Two approaches to the problem of the proper utilization of our older folks appear in the January PERSONNEL. Cornell's John McConnell examines six common assumptions, three from the viewpoint of the economy and three from the viewpoint of the oldsters. Leaving out the emotion so often associated with such discussions, Dr. McConnell clarifies the problem and suggests clearer methods of working on the question.

Under the title "Social Security Benefits and Deferred Retirement," Ernest Olrich gives reasons for a revision of the laws governing Old Age and Survivors Insurance and sets forth a plan to adjust the laws so that both the economy and the individual older worker may benefit by permitting and encouraging work after age 65.

■ For a good down-to-earth article for teachers seeking aid in improving the homeroom period as a means of guidance, "Instruments Which Will Be Useful to Homeroom Teachers in Counseling" is recommended. Two commonly used instruments for discovering what the problems of pupils are and another which can be of help in considering the vocational choice question are described. Their publishers and costs are given in January's *The High School Journal*.

■ "Who is a 'good' teacher?" "Which applicant will become a 'good' teacher?" "How may we determine whether a teacher is 'good'?" What person charged with the responsibility for teacher personnel would not like to have the answers to those and similar questions! Read David G. Ryans' "Teacher Personnel Research" in the January, 1953, *California Journal of Educational Research* for a well-considered description of what has been done and what should be done in the search for reasonable answers to qualitative problems of teacher personnel.

In the same issue is the summary of a doctoral study by Ann Nowell on the subject of "Peer Status as Related to Measures of Personality." It is very interesting that "No evidence was found that indicated 'adjustment' or 'maladjustment,' as measured by tests of personality used in this study, bore a relationship to the degree of acceptance accorded a given child by his peers."

■ Blanche Camden emphasizes the necessity "For a Better Understanding of Entering Students" in the January issue of *The School Review*. Stress is laid on the techniques by which this understanding may be acquired and value of its use in helping teachers help boys and girls make important social and academic adjustments.

■ How can a school better serve the needs of its pupils and of the community which supports it? One way, of course, is to seek to adjust the requirements of the community occupation-wise to the interests and abilities of the pupils. If a school attempts such an adjustment of its program, it, naturally, will build up for itself good public relations. A specific instance of such an attempt is given in "A Community Occupational Survey as a Public Relations Instrument" in January's *The School Review*.

■ The *NEA Journal*'s article on "We Need More Scientists and Engineers" presents in a very convincing way the need of a greatly expanded guidance program in our schools as a means of meeting a great national need. Using the case of a University of Oklahoma senior, Ernest Lippert, as an example of how good guidance can furnish the badly needed scientists—for civilian as well as military purposes—and tabulating our present production of engineers, the article lists some avenues by which schools can aid in the discovery and development of potential workers in these fields.

■ Facts and figures concerning the "Disadvantaged" appear in the same issue, adapted from *The Modern Rural School* by Butterworth and Dawson. Migrants, other hired farm workers, rural non-farm people, Negroes, Indians, and Spanish Americans are pointed out as major examples of groups who are not getting "equal opportunities." Such phrases as "If the states would but seriously set about placing a floor under educational opportunity . . ." ". . . no state has actually faced realities," "The federal government is almost totally devoid of any constructive action . . ." ". . . we know what to do. But our professions far outrun our performances" highlight the article. Read it.

■ January's *National Parent-Teacher* contains another of its splendid features entitled "N.P.T. Quiz Program; A Family Counseling Service." Conducted on the letter-answer basis, this particular article treats phases of the only-child problem from a parent's viewpoint, the treatment of the exemplary pupil who "kicks over the traces" for the first time, the matter of an allowance and the question of whether to leave a dependable adolescent girl entirely on her own as hostess of her first boy-girl party. School counselors will do well to follow this series.

■ If you are interested in the advancement of college personnel work and missed the article "Western Personnel Institute: A Regional Development in Education" by Clifford Houston and Robert Forbes in January's *The Educational Record*, we suggest that you read it. The genesis, organization, and values described as characteristic of Western Personnel Institute should give encouragement to those who, with limited means and facilities, are tackling the intricate problems of helping college youth train for and satisfactorily adjust to the work world.

■ "A Teacher's Dual Role" is something we have often heard of in educational discussions. In the February *Junior College Journal* Mabel Buckner gives a particularly clear picture of these roles which are apropos at any school level when she says, "Education will accomplish little unless the college personalizes its activities with sympathetic and understanding teachers reaching students as individuals of varying abilities, attitudes, needs, and problems. Education is effective only if it deals with the personal attitudes and beliefs of individual human beings, and it is here that the teacher has the dual role of teacher and counselor."

■ Over a quarter million displaced persons have entered our labor force. What kind of folks are these new Americans? What kind of work experience have they had? What character of jobs were they first put on after arrival in this country and to what extent have they shifted jobs? Have they stayed in the original place of settlement after arrival, and if not, why have they migrated? What progress have they made toward adjustment to American community life? These questions have been answered for you by George Minton in "Integration of Displaced Persons into U. S. Economic Life" in the December *Monthly Labor Review*.

■ January saw another splendid issue of the new magazine *Adult Leadership*. In it "The Tool Kit: Training in Member Roles," in particular, caught our attention. It is truly a "tool kit." Functional roles of group members are categorized and clearly explained. Types of behavior which impede good group functioning are set out and ways of improving group work are outlined. Usable charts and checklists are included. If you want to augment the worth of your group here is a first class source of aid.

■ Pulitzer prize winner Oscar Handlin had a very readable and thought-provoking analysis of trends in the working man's relationship to politics in the February *Atlantic*. After pointing out the factors that made the laboring man a New Dealer in

the 1930's, Handlin asserts that "Payroll Prosperity" accounts for the action of many voters in industrial centers like Chicago, Pittsburgh and Youngstown in switching their political allegiance in 1952. You owe it to yourself as a citizen to follow through this line of reasoning and see what you think of it.

■ An examination of the "Implications of *Intelligence and Cultural Differences,*" with an introduction and article by Irving Lorge as a test-maker and an article by the late John L. Stenquist as a test-user, is to be found in the January *Teachers College Record.* Proposing that we discard the intelligence label in favor of the more variable and meaningful term "aptitudes," Stenquist predicts: "A new brand of I.Q., unshackled by linguistic or academic handicaps, structured in terms untainted by middle-class culture can no doubt be produced." Lorge's contribution is a constructively critical analysis of this research study especially as a force in "reinstating an interest in the question of the relation between status and intelligence."

■ "Those who were brought up under the theory that there is but one aptitude and that aptitude is intelligence, may be appalled at the growing complexity of things. The belief in and use of a single measure of aptitude is certainly simple and comfortable. But it is also very restrictive." So says J. P. Guilford in "Some Recent Findings on Thinking Abilities and Their Implications" in the fall issue of *Training Analysis and Development Informational Bulletin* of the Air Training Command. He reports on studies now under way at the University of Southern California to search out primary mental abilities and "clear up the picture of both Thurstone's and the AAF factors." Inductive reasoning, deductive reasoning, and "arithmetical" reasoning are now outmoded, he says, by the categories: reasoning abilities, creative abilities, evaluative abilities, and planning abilities. Implications for experimental psychologists, vocational psychologists, and education are pointed out.

■ The *Phi Delta Kappan* for January contains a number of articles of interest and value to the counselor. In "John Dewey and the Double-Edged Danger," Ray Montgomery defines democratic education as grounded on ". . . the potentialities of the child at the moment of engagement and the nature of the activity." "When education assumes this meaning, it avoids both the outmoded training for a hierarchical society that denies democratic dignity and freedom, and the unguided, aimless play which substitutes chance for planning."

C. A. Weber, in "Let's Teach Them How to Decide," also attempts to harmonize the educational dilemma with emphasis upon goals and their evaluation. He asserts that "Today . . . much of the teaching profession and many outside the profession no longer accept mere acquisition of fact, information, and skills as the true measure of success in learning. In spite of this, the old forms persist and we find ourselves in a strange predicament; the goals no longer command respect from public or profession, yet we measure achievement in the old ways." Contending that the goal of education should be to educate children to make intelligent and practical judgments, he characterizes guidance as "basically, a compromise between what we *actually teach* in the schools and what we know full well we *ought to teach.*" It seems to this reviewer that there is a kernel of truth in this statement; perhaps just enough to cause some to accept it fully without discriminating analysis.

Also in the same issue is "Tapping the Sources of Teacher Supply" by W. A. Stumpf.

■ Good occupational information is "Now Is the Time for All Good Women" by Lois Graham McDowell in the January *Altrusan.* This woman engineer tells of her training and experience and says: "To get the record straight, any woman of reasonable intelligence and a liking for the work can master the training, do the job, and not lose the identity of her sex in the process." We'd suggest that the first half of the sentence can be appraised as a slight exaggeration, but that the last half is important news.

■ Hints for free-lance writers, commercial artists and photographers in "How to Market Your Talents" is found in the January *Glamour.* Recently issued by the *Glamour* Job Department is a *Fact Sheet* entitled Enlistment Qualifications—WAC, WAVES, WAF, MARINES.

■ The home in which parents are overly permissive or indulgent toward the child may directly contribute to the social isolation of the child just as much as the overly dominating and autocratic home according to Walter L. Wilkins in the December issue of *Education*. Parents ". . . who are somewhat neutral in attitude toward the child but harsh and autocratic in disciplinary techniques are likely to produce a child who may be aggressive and rebellious, or sometimes a child who may be timid and dependent." Moreover, ". . . the indulgent parent, too, can contribute to inadequate social adjustment of the child to his peers," by causing the child to become smug and selfish, and later aloof, convinced of his own superiority, and rejected by his peers.

■ Jampacked with articles on guidance at the junior college level is the January *Junior College Journal*. Louis A. Rice describes the shape and services of a junior college student personnel program based on the three steps of self-realization, self-direction, and self-control.

The educational and vocational characteristics of students attending Santa Ana College are described in "The Guidance Survey, A Key to Student Needs and Wishes" by Andrew D. Roberts. Students' educational and vocational objectives were explored as were their appraisal of educational and guidance services offered. They felt that the college curriculum was too academic, guidance services stood in need of improvement, advocated that an occupational adjustment class be organized, recommended the enlargement and systematization of the current testing program, and wanted more adequate interviews.

"The Guidance Advisory System" to assist secondary school counselors to understand college entrance requirements and programs of study is described by Milo VanHall. G. O. Kidlow in the same issue tells how "North Idaho Junior College Assists in a County-Wide Guidance Program."

"A Testing Program for a Junior College for Women" is described by Edward J. Durnall, Jr., and L. O. Brockmann gives us a very interesting and inspirational account of the "Pre-School Conference on Guidance and Mental Hygiene" held at Northern Montana College. The purposes outlined are that of giving the faculty a general overview of guidance; developing some skills and techniques in specific areas such as interviewing, counseling, test-giving; and developing ideas on what to study during the coming school year as part of a continued in-service training program in the field of guidance.

■ "Hawaii's Youth Employment Problem" is not only described, but a program of action is outlined by Maureen Stevens and Thomas K. Hitch in the January *Employment Security Review*. The problem is being met by teamwork among school, business, and employment service representatives, the latter supplying information on job opportunities both for placement and curriculum revision purposes, and testing.

■ Leonard M. Miller writes on "Team Approach in Pupil Counseling" in the December *School Life*. After describing the duties of staff members in counseling he asserts: "These services will operate best when the specialist in one area has enough understanding and appreciates the work of counseling specialists in other areas to be able to recognize the appropriateness of referrals and relationships."

■ This reviewer doesn't often abstract articles from *The School Guidance Worker*, published by the Vocational Guidance Centre of the Ontario College of Education because much of this splendid publication is given over to reprints of articles which have previously appeared in other journals, some of them more easily available to the reader than is SGW. Nevertheless, it must be valuable to those readers fortunate enough to obtain it. You might investigate.

■ The many who realize the importance for guidance as well as education of schools oriented to and involved in community life will want to read the January special issue of *The School Executive* which is almost entirely given over to the topic: "Schools and Community Improvement." Significant in terms of the tangent of approach is the emphasis on how schools can serve the community—not on what the school can get from the community. It seems to this reviewer that the emphasis given here is the more sound of the two approaches if it is true that giving is certain to result in receiving. This issue is geared

to practical projects now being carried out in schools and communities throughout the nation rather than just an exposition of the theory of school-community cooperation.

■ The February issue of *School Executive* carries two informative articles of interest to counselors. Morton J. Tomlinson and Ted B. Southerland describe how "Club Helps Students Choose a College" by study and visits. E. Oren Hammond in "What to Do About High School Drop Outs?" recounts how concern about this problem led to the selection by counselors of a group of students likely to profit from a special program and how that special program was built around a core embracing English and World history. Meaningful activities such as field trips and audio-visual aids with the content geared in part to individual appraisal and occupational opportunities met with success based on actual evaluation.

■ In the December issue, the *Monthly Labor Review* started a series of articles describing the findings of a study of tool and die makers. The first article examined the extent and kinds of job changes made by the 1,712 subjects. The January issue describes their personal characteristics, family backgrounds, and how they chose and entered this occupation. Job aptitude or interest, family influence and economic considerations were the most important influences, in order of importance, for their choice. Subsequent articles will report on how these workers were trained, and how their working lives were affected by the kind of training they received.

■ "Information Appropriate for Curriculum Guidance" by David V. Tiedeman and Jack J. Sternberg in the Fall *Harvard Educational Review* explains and illustrates the technique of discriminant analysis and asserts it to be superior to the use of regression analysis in curriculum guidance. It also serves to throw light on the utility of the Differential Aptitude Test.

■ The January issue of *Clearing House* contains a number of articles of interest and of varying value to counselors. "You Need a Little Cultural Anthropology" is a well-selected quotation from Johannis and Brown *The Social Studies* which has implications for counselors as well as teachers. How schools and communities have failed to make provisions for school leavers is shown in the form of case studies by Ernst H. Suerken in "When Drop-Outs Go Job-Hunting." Why and how Sharon, Pennsylvania, High School gave up the spectacular Career Day for the more soundly servicing method of spreading the program over the year is told by H. F. Grimes in "We Are Allergic to Career Days."

"Government Occupational Publications" provides nothing new to the trained counselor, but may "spread the gospel" to teachers. The significant effects of family background and socio-economic status are highlighted in two case studies in this issue. Edna M. McGlynn's "24 Hours for Henry Miller" illustrates how even a kindly and individually oriented teacher can be misled by a boy already well in the clutches of delinquent behavior. It also may help to enlighten some on the sordid but very real influences in the lives of our students. It reminds this reviewer of the naivete of one teacher who, when confronted with evidences of incest exclaimed: "Oh! we don't have that in *this* country." "The Last Straw: Snag Hill's Class President" is Katherine M. Carroll's masterful satirical account of the horror felt by the "rear-guard" teacher at the reorientation of a school's program in terms of students who come from the other side of the tracks. That "that Wilson" should be elected class president is almost the last straw. The possibility that the PTA will probably award him the citizenship award is.—CLARENCE W. FAILOR and Graduate Student EMORY J. WESLEY, *College of Education, University of Colorado.*

And these . . . also:

"The Word Around the World: Jobs in International Radio and Television" in February *Glamour* . . . "The Search for Occupational Personalities: The Rorschach Test in Industry" in January PERSONNEL . . . "The Potential of the Comprehensive High School" by David B. Austin in January *Teachers College Record* . . . "Status of Guidance Services in Oregon" by J. David O'Dea and James W. Sherburne in November *California Journal of Secondary Education* . . . "The Relationship between the Predictive Power of Aptitude Tests for Trainability and for Job Proficiency" and "A Psychological Study of Occupational Adjustment" in December *Journal of Applied Psychology.*

BOOKS REVIEWED

reviews of recent publications . . . by various contributors

PRINCIPLES OF HUMAN RELATIONS, by Norman R. F. Maier. New York: John Wiley & Sons, 1952. 474 pp. $6.00.

This book is written for persons who are interested in human relations problems, and as such it concerns itself with overcoming communication barriers, preventing misunderstanding, and developing the constructive side of man's nature (p. vii).

This is a puzzling book. Dr. Maier writes clearly. He is thoroughly familiar with some areas of his topic and with others, such as counseling, shows a truly amazing naivete or bias. In reading the book there was a haunting feeling of familiarity. A bit of searching on the shelves and the problem was solved—*Industrial Psychology*, by Morris S. Viteles, New York, W. W. Norton & Co., 1932, Chapters XXV, XXVI, XXVII; *The Dissatisfied Worker*, V. E. Fisher and J. V. Hanna, New York: MacMillan, 1931; and V. V. Anderson, *Psychiatry in Industry*, New York: Harper and Bros., 1929. The ideas were in these books of twenty to twenty-five years ago. The scholarly work of Viteles is not approached by Maier.

This reviewer was puzzled also by the substitution of a political term, "democratic" for Viteles' more psychological "integrative." Not only is the substitution made, but it is used *ad nauseum*—45 times at least in Chapter II and seven times on page 177 alone. It is not liked personally because it appears to be both a propaganda technique —words of "good" connotation for effect not meaning, and also a method of reverse name calling—if you do not follow these recommended approaches you are not *democratic*. The black-white use of non-directive as "the" method of counseling follows this same pattern.

Those readers who like to have generalizations based on research will be disturbed at the number of times they must accept a generalization on faith. For example, on page 15 we find that a supervisor controls "by how he does things not by *any* authority his position gives him." (Italics not in original.) In commenting on promotions for sound and outstanding performance, "Finally each job is performed by persons having the least aptitude for the job," (p. 32). This, if true, will be a shock to many industrial personnel workers. On page 38, "The greatest value of an interview resides in discovering attitudes." For some interviews, yes, but as a generalization? On page 48 the statement that, "It seems that conference methods have their optimum value when used in situations in which they have the best chance of being effective . . .," and on page 414, "A new approach to counseling known as *nondirective* or *client-centered*, satisfies these qualifications in that it can be highly effective and yet CAN HAVE NO HARMFUL EFFECTS IF IMPROPERLY USED." (Capitals not in original.)

These criticisms are not aimed at *Principles of Human Relations* alone. The lay-group dynamicist with his faith in untested hypotheses and a bit of research has used a vast amount of paper in recent years. Critical analyses are ignored in the bibliographies and if research shows the probability that a fair proportion of people in our culture want somewhat authoritative leadership, such studies are also ignored. I could find no mention in this book of the somewhat contrary evidence regarding the "democratic" supervision or leadership for large groups.

Despite this reviewer's critical view of the book there are sections well worth reading. Chapter 7 is good exposition on group decision procedures.

Although the use of the word "democratic" totals an unbelievable figure at this point, Chapters 8 and 9, "Democratic Supervision in Action," are an interesting presentation of case studies. The concept of areas of freedom related to increasing adminis-

trative responsibility, pp. 24 ff. is well presented.

If one inspects Table 1, p. 20, there will be two questions unanswered the rest of the way:

How many companies will give this much time for training of supervisors if the tax structure should change in certain directions?

How can supervisors with so little training achieve the result claimed through role playing, counseling, and the non-manipulative manipulation of groups?

The summary opinion—An interesting book but for many not familiar with the literature a dangerously misleading one.—MILTON E. HAHN, *Professor of Psychology and Dean of Students, University of California at Los Angeles.*

THE DYNAMICS OF THE COUNSELING PROCESS, by Everett L. Shostrom and Lawrence M. Brammer. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1952. 213 pp. $3.50.

AFTER reading a book, this reviewer likes to speculate about the author's reason for writing. In the case of Shostrom and Brammer their *raison d'être* is obvious—to present in its most favorable light a rationale and methodology for "self-adjustive counseling." They accomplish their mission!

This book presents step by step the procedures which the authors label "self-adjustive counseling." This reviewer believes it unfortunate that Shostrom and Brammer coined a term to describe a frankly eclectic approach to counseling. Their indebtedness to traditional and client-centered methodology shines through each phrase in their definition of self-adjustive counseling. Even more unfortunate is the potential confusion which may result from their new term. Does it imply self-counseling in a manner analogous to self-hypnosis? Does it imply that in other counseling methods that some person other than the counselee does the adjusting? Even the most ardent "traditional" counselor would deny such an implication. Despite these semantic objections this reviewer believes Shostrom and

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Brammer have made a worth-while contribution to the literature on counseling methodology. Their presentation of a number of counseling techniques which have worked for them is clear and straightforward, but it does not justify the title, *Dynamics of the Counseling Process.* To this reviewer "dynamics" involves more than a how-we-did-it-approach. The many verbatim reports from pre-counseling orientation sessions, counseling interviews, and post-counseling evaluation interviews make the text come alive. One feels that he understands the authors' point of view when he finishes the book.

Dynamics of the Counseling Process reports in considerable detail the results of an evaluation of counseling which the authors conducted at the Stanford Counseling and Testing Center. Counseling carried on by "traditional techniques" was compared with "self-adjustive counseling" upon the criterion of "feeling tone." In the study reported, self-adjustive counseling produced more favorable feeling tone than did traditional techniques.

The terms in quotation marks in the preceding paragraph are defined by Shostrom and Brammer as follows:

"*Traditional techniques* are long-standing guidance procedures, such as highly organized interviews, advice, strong informational and psychometric emphasis, and counselor-centered attitudes" (p. 2).

"*Self-adjustive counseling* . . . assists the client to become more self-directive and self-responsible. Its approach is permissive or client-centered in attitude, yet its method employs tests and information if appropriate. The self-adjustive approach maintains that the individual is a unique whole personality and that counseling should facilitate the individual's total maturity as well as focus on his immediate problem-solving processes" (p. 3).

"*Feeling tone* (is inferred from) client affective expression of satisfaction with counseling and feeling of self-direction" (p. 41).

The book contains a generous sprinkling of editorial slips such as incorrect date (p. 21), inaccurate bibliographical identification (p. 146), citation of some authors by last name only, and use of full name of others in the same list (p. 108), reference to "40,000 types of jobs" in one place (p. 15) when the author should have spoken of job *titles* rather than *jobs.* The index in small type covers nearly 19 full pages, the text of the book is only 194 pages. A ratio of 1 to 10 seems inordinately long to this reviewer (especially when direct quotations from him are not indexed but each author whose work is simply cited in a "Bibliotherapy Reference List" is indexed by name). While such editorial shortcomings do not seriously impair the message of the book, they are not characteristic of a carefully and thoroughly worked document. Nor are such statements as the following indicative of a careful thinking through of what has been written. "A good counselor always comes out of the office to meet his client" (p. 68). (This reviewer wonders why he must *always* leave his office.) "We may say, therefore, that a person is 'adjusted,' or in good mental health, when he behaves in a manner consistent with his self-concept" (p. 10). (Is a person "adjusted" when he conceives of himself as Napoleon and behaves as though he were?)

To this reviewer the book appeals, not as a textbook for a course in counseling, but rather, as a provocative presentation of the

authors' synthesis of counseling methodology. Counselors, beginners or old timers, traditional or client-centered, will find much to think about as they reflect upon *The Dynamics of the Counseling Process.* Few will accept entirely the authors' point of view, none should reject completely. Most will want to overlook the book's shortcomings and cogitate about the implications of "self-adjustive counseling" for their own counseling practice.—CLIFFORD P. FROEHLICH, *Associate Professor of Education, University of California, Berkeley.*

STUDENT PARTICIPATION IN COLLEGE ADMINISTRATION, by Francis E. Falvey. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1952. 206 pp. $4.00.

THE PRESERVATION of democracy depends in the final analysis on the morale of the citizenry and their informed and responsible participation in the processes of government. This constitutes a challenge to schools and, in particular, to colleges and universities if they are to fulfill their appropriate role of leadership in solving the problems of the society which supports them. It is to this responsibility of the college that *Student Participation in College Administration is addressed.* The author considers the college as "an organic and contributing member of contemporary society" and presents the thesis that "if the college ignores the democratic nature of its setting, it fails in one of its most important social obligations and responsibilities."

In the past, the college has generally conceived its responsibility as having been fulfilled when it has provided factual and theoretical knowledge in the area of the social sciences with, perhaps, some rather intangible contributions to the formation of attitudes. The author points out that the educated citizen in a democracy needs not only information but appropriate skills and attitudes. "The skills essential to effective citizenship must be acquired through participation in activities required of the thoughtful citizen." Following this intro-

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ductory chapter, the author analyzes the objectives of student participation, includes a well-written résumé of the historical development of student participation, and discusses those areas of college administration traditionally administered by students and staff officers, those administered by faculty, and those reserved to the administration. This section is given concreteness through the extensive use of illustrations of specific practices of individual colleges.

The author presents two significant emerging trends in student participation—"toward community government with active student participation in an increasing variety of administrative concerns; and toward the belief that student participation is a group process of social action rather than individualistic cooperation." The volume includes a critical and constructive analysis of the problems which confront students, faculty, and administration in making student participation effective, includes suggestions for further research needed, and closes with the reiteration of the author's conviction, which runs throughout the book, that the basic ingredient for successful student participation is "faith in the democratic process and in the ability of human beings to approximate this process in their relationship with one another."

The book is a "must" for college administrators, personnel workers, and faculty members. It applies to staff-student relationships at the college level implications of recent developments in psychology and "group dynamics" which have been coming into increasing recognition in personnel work. Particularly significant are the trends toward cooperative relationship of staff and students in all phases of college administration, in contrast to the concept of rigid separation of functions with zealous regard for faculty and administrative prerogatives, and "the necessity for faith, faith in the ability of students to make mature contributions to the college undertaking, faith in the ability of adults in the college community to understand and accept the urgency of promoting student collaboration in solving the problems of a group enterprise, and faith in the process of student participation rooted in the facts of the social sciences and in concrete examples of successful student participation."

The volume is well written, thoroughly documented, and soundly oriented. The reviewer presents only two minor reservations. In the discussion of "group process" and the role of the leader, the author does not indicate acquaintance with the fundamental research of the late Kurt Lewin and his associates. His analysis of democracy, autocracy, and laissez-faire, for example, would have strengthened this section. The other reservation is suggested by the author in suggesting further areas for research. This study is based on student participation in the small liberal arts colleges. Obviously its application to different types of institutions—the large university, the technical college, the municipal college, the professional school—will call for modification in the light of the different conditions obtaining. It is the conviction of the reviewer, however, that the basic principles of student-staff relationships outlined in Part I are equally applicable in these institutions. Machinery will differ but the underlying concepts of the responsibility of higher education for preparation of students for effective democratic citizenship and operative conditions of cooperative planning with mutual tolerance and respect are universal.—EDGAR G. JOHNSTON, *Wayne University, Detroit Michigan.*

UNDERSTANDING OURSELVES, by Helen Shacter. Bloomington, Illinois: McKnight and McKnight Publishing Company, 1952. 124 pp.

THIS IS WRITTEN for students interested in improving understanding of themselves and others. The author states as the purpose of this book: "to give you knowledge of the growth of personality, and to help you

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Chapters discuss such topics as getting along with yourself and others, personalities vary in many ways, why we fail to satisfy our social needs, when we fail to satisfy our social needs, solving problems versus evading problems and the game of living. This listing of material is not all-inclusive.

This little book is designed for people without technical training. As such, it should prove very useful as the basis for discussions among students, among parents and students, and among teachers and students. Highly trained people will consider the material rather elementary but this will not negate its value to the student.

Much of the usefulness of this publication lies in its easy-reading and its novel-like approach. There are no high-sounding words or phrases to confuse the uninitiated. Counselors can use the book to great advantage in the fostering of self-understanding by pupils.—GAIL F. FARWELL, *Department of Guidance and Counselor Training, Michigan State College.*

LOVEJOY'S COLLEGE GUIDE, by Clarence E. Lovejoy. New York: Simon and Schuster, 1952. 246 pp. $2.00.

THE THIRD REVISED edition of this book represents the author's continuing effort to reduce to comprehensible form the salient features of the many junior colleges, colleges, and universities which represent higher education in the United States. The book itself is divided into two parts.

Part I is a discursive section intended primarily for prospective college students and their parents. This section includes a discussion of the importance of college education, the purposes of college education, some items of general consideration for students preparing for college, a chapter intended primarily to help parents avoid some of the pitfalls of unwise college selections for their children, a chapter on cost of going to college, and a chapter on scholarships, loans, and part-time jobs. Also included in this section are discussions of the role of the federal government in higher education, admission to colleges, and how to go about the job of selecting a college.

Part II of the book contains ratings of 2,049 institutions of higher education in the United States. This section is probably the most helpful to teachers and guidance counselors. Each listing contains the following information: rating; name of institution; city; street address; environment; reference to or mileage to nearest well-known center; whether co-ed; publicly controlled or private; major characteristics, whether liberal arts college, university, technological institute, teacher training, etc.; when established; any previous names or mergers; number of students, men and women; number of volumes in library; faculty-to-student ratio; when freshmen and transfer students are admitted and entrance requirements of all students; ranking in Who's Who in America; chapter (if) and date founded of Phi Beta Kappa; accreditation regionally, professionally, and otherwise.

Details are given on: tuition; board, room, and other institutional costs; typical expenses for a year, including $300 for personal items, travel, clothing, etc.; living and eating facilities; facilities for married students; number of social fraternal groups and rules on living in chapter houses; scholarships available; loan fund operations; part-time work participation; athletic programs, intramural and intercollegiate.

On the academic side, the *Guide* discusses: various schools, colleges, and main divisions of the institutions; degrees offered, including professional and graduate degrees; availability of associate degrees for

affiliated lower divisions or junior colleges; acceleration policies; cooperative, alternating work-and-study programs; new educational programs, unusual developments and special curricula features; location and distance of subordinate or branch campuses; Reserve Officers Training Corps of the Army, Navy, and Air Force.

A new feature of the third edition of this book is a section called "Career Curricula—Guidance and Clues." It lists schools which offer training in special fields—contains the more commonly known areas in addition to such little known areas as gymology, horology, seismology, tanning, and tobacco growing. This section is admittedly not complete.

Despite the inaccuracies which come as a result of changing curricula, lack of accurate information from college publications, and the magnitude of the task confronting the editor, *Lovejoy's College Guide* represents a sound investment for prospective students, parents, teachers, and guidance counselors. The book is most valuable as a guide to college.—LEROY HULL, *Junior Division, Indiana University.*

ABOUT YOU, by Marjorie C. Cosgrove and Mary I. Josey. Chicago: Science Research Associates, 1952. $.96.

BY MIXING SOME mental hygiene with adolescent psychology and adding a dash of Dale Carnegie, the authors of *About You* have contrived to prepare a dish which should appeal to the palates of the youthful consumer of the personal-social adjustment type of material and to the teacher responsible for its presentation.

About You is a cleverly illustrated and well-organized paper-bound textbook-workbook for the teen-age group devoted to assisting students in understanding themselves in relation to the kinds of problems they are now facing and will meet in the future. The ten chapters take the student back to infancy by means of a brief discussion of heredity and environment, and through adulthood by means of a discussion of planning for a career. The descriptive chapter titles suggest the breadth of material covered in the book's 80 pages—"What Makes You," "How Personality Grows," "A Healthy Per-

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Publications . . . in brief

Collegiate Education for Nursing, by Margaret Bridgman. New York: The Russell Sage Foundation, 1953. 205 pp. $2.50.

This volume examines current practices in junior colleges and universities pointing toward integrated curricula for nursing students. Appraises the field of nursing education, discusses present weaknesses and limitations, makes suggestions for improvement and expansion.

Origins of American Scientists, by R. H. Knapp and H. B. Goodrich. Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 1952. 450 pp. $7.50.

Reports results of a study sponsored by Wesleyan University and the Carnegie Corporation inquiring into the educational backgrounds of American scientists. Using an index of the rate per thousand at which graduates of various institutions have continued to the doctorate level and ultimately to a listing in *American Men of Science,* the authors show that scientists tend to come from America's "grassroots." In a series of case studies they examine the historical development of scientific education in typical colleges and discuss methods of teaching and the personal qualities of "good" teachers of science. The study includes an assessment of the relative achievements of some 490 colleges and universities, based on the records of about 18,000 graduates, and comprehensive case studies of 22 selected liberal arts colleges.

Fathers are Parents, Too, by O. Spurgeon English, M.D., and Constance Foster. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons, 1951. 304 pp. $3.75.

Subtitled "A Constructive Guide to Successful Fatherhood," this book treats with humor and

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Guidance of American Youth

AN EXPERIMENTAL STUDY *By John W. M. Rothney and Bert A. Roens.* Winner of a 1951 award from the Council of Guidance and Personnel Associations for outstanding research in the field of guidance.

Foreword by James Bryant Conant.

THIS research project was undertaken in the public high schools of Arlington, Massachusetts. It was begun in 1936 with a selected group of eighth graders who were exposed to guidance through twelfth grade. "Parents, teachers, counselors, in fact all concerned with American youth . . . and the pressures which shape them, will want to read this study . . . Enlightening and valuable conclusions are reached. The book is doubly important because of its use of readable and non-technical language." —*Library Journal*

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understanding the problems of the male parent in meeting his responsibilities in the home. The authors stress the point that it is from the father that children acquire patterns for accepting or evading their own obligations. They state their case in clear, concise language and include plenty of lively examples.

Vocational Training Directory of the United States, compiled by Nathan M. Cohen. Paper-bound. 138 pp. $2.25. Copies available from the author, 1434 Harvard Street, N. W., Washington 9, D. C.

Intended primarily for use by librarians, vocational guidance counselors, school officials and others who are called upon for educational information and counseling, this directory lists about 3,900 private, non-degree, semi-professional, technical, and trade schools. Most of the schools have not been listed in other standard directories. All the schools have been state-approved for Veterans' training; and/or state-approved or licensed; and/or approved by a responsible accrediting agency; or have otherwise met certain minimum requirements. They are listed geographically by state and city, alphabetically by name of school, and are indexed by type of course.

Stevenson Index, 1953 edition. Free copies available from the Robert Louis Stevenson School, 246 West 80th Street, New York 24, New York.

A compilation of educational information for veterans, the index contains: (1) schools approved for "Korean" veterans, their addresses and telephone numbers; (2) courses veterans may wish to study, together with lists of schools that teach them; (3) agencies, both private and governmental, of special interest to veterans; (4) requirements for matriculation in colleges in New York City; and (5) facts about the G. I. Bill, including the "Stevenson G. I. Allowance Time-Table."

Opportunities for the Preparation of Teachers of Exceptional Children. Published jointly by the National Society for Crippled Children and Adults and the United States Office of Education. 97 pp. $.50. Copies available from the National Society for Crippled Children and Adults, 11 South La Salle Street, Chicago 3, Illinois.

This is a directory of colleges and universities in the United States giving training to teach exceptional children. Course sequences in the various schools are classified by special fields and by state and institution. Course descriptions are included.

Guaranteed Annual Wage and Employment Plans, by Philomena Marquardt Mullady. Available from the Distribution Center, School of Industrial and Labor Relations, Cornell University, Ithaca, New York. Single copies free to residents of New York State. $.15 for bulk and out-of-state orders.

First of a new bibliography series listing selected references on particular problems in industrial relations. Contains a brief introduction pointing up significant developments and major issues in the subject covered.

Selected Sources of Free and Inexpensive Information Concerning Vocational Rehabilitation—A Bibliography, compiled by Lynn L. Ralya and Lillian L. Ralya, 1953. 9 pp. $.25. Copies available from the compilers, 907 Fourteenth Street, Santa Monica, California.

This bibliography is divided into two sections, the first dealing with vocational rehabilitation in general and the second concerning itself with vocational rehabilitation of specific disabilities. The authors say the material included was chosen on the basis of: (a) validity and recency of information; (b) coverage of basic principles and facts; (c) probable reader appeal; (d) availability and cost; and (e) suitableness for the use of beginning readers in the field. The bibliographies listed provide also for those who wish to read more broadly or study more deeply.

SRA Better Living Booklet: *Emotional Problems of Illness,* by Irene M. Josselyn, M.D. 48 pp. Science Research Associates, 57 West Grand Avenue, Chicago 10, Illinois. $.40; special quantity discounts.

This booklet deals with the emotional aspects of such problems as: illness caused by anxiety; hospitalization of the ill child; convalescence; what to do about missed school work; the handicapped child; the total family and the ill child. The author emphasizes that children are as susceptible to worry as they are to diseases, and that each child reflects his parents' attitude toward illness. Anxiety or worry on the part of the parents cannot help cure sickness.

SRA Life Adjustment Booklet: *Your Taste and Good Design,* by Thomas Folds. 48 pp. Science Research Associates, 57 West Grand Avenue, Chicago 10, Illinois. $.40 each; special quantity discounts.

Written especially for high school students, this booklet explains that there are certain basic requirements in the design of everyday objects which should be looked for when making purchases. These requirements—such as the purpose the object is meant to serve, and the materials of which it is made—are discussed and illustrated. The design of familiar objects used by teen-agers, ranging from neckties and scarves to furniture, automobiles, and houses, are included.

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SRA Junior Life Adjustment Booklet: *Your Health Handbook,* by Julius B. Richmond, M.D. 40 pp. Science Research Associates, 57 West Grand Avenue, Chicago 10, Illinois. $.40 each; special quantity discounts.

This cleverly illustrated pamphlet is designed to stimulate in youngsters an interest in the functioning of their bodies, and a respect for the necessity of taking care of them.

A Counseling Aid for: High-School Deans of Girls and Counselors, 1952–1953 Edition. Prepared by Cooperative Courses, University of Cincinnati, Cincinnati 21, Ohio. Free copies available.

This booklet is a compilation of career articles written by women graduates of the College of Business Administration, the College of Applied Arts, and the College of Engineering of Cincinnati University. Fields covered include retailing, customer service, market research, personnel work, interior design, chemical engineering, etc. The occupational information is given in an informal manner; the training programs and services of the Cooperative Courses plan are described.

Watchmaker and *Clothes Designer.* Occupational Information Monographs prepared by the Vocational Guidance Centre, Ontario College of Education, University of Toronto, 371 Bloor Street West, Toronto 5, Ontario. 4 pp. $.12 in Canada, $.15 elsewhere.

These monographs follow the pattern of this familiar series, giving the history, nature of the work, working conditions, qualifications, preparation, opportunities for advancement, advantages and disadvantages, related occupations, and suggestions for further reading in the fields discussed.

Up Your Alley, by Lazelle D. Alway. Published by the National Child Labor Committee, 419 Fourth Avenue, New York 16, New York. 32 pp. Single copies available free.

The information in this provocative pamphlet on the problem of boys working in bowling alleys was developed from answers to questionnaires filled out by 460 boys affiliated with Boys' Clubs and other agencies. The majority of these pinboys were between 14 and 16 years of age. They represent 19 states and 65 communities. The study brings out the really strenuous nature of this work, the hazards involved, and the problems resulting from the late hours and generally unhealthy working conditions. The author states: "For many boys, pinsetting is their first real job, their first money-making experience. Irregular hours, dependence upon gratuities and tips and illegal working conditions do not constitute a wholesome beginning work experience."

Negroes in the United States: Their Employment and Economic Status. Prepared by the United States Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics, Washington 25, D. C. 58 pp. $.30. Copies available from the Superintendent of Documents, Government Printing Office, Washington 25, D. C.

This new publication describes recent national trends in the status of Negro men and women in relation to that of whites. Data presented include facts about birth and mortality rates, life expectancy, migration among states, movement from the rural South to cities, education and school enrollment, labor force participation and unemployment, the industries and occupations in which Negroes are employed, family income and wages, and insurance protection under the Social Security program. Illustrated by 20 charts, includes tables and annotated bibliography.

State Legislation Promoting the Marketing of Blind-Made Products in the United States. American Foundation for the Blind, 15 West 16th Street, New York 11, New York. 16 pp. $.20.

Designed as a possible aid in planning "state use laws," this pamphlet presents reprints in full of the legislation on the marketing of blind-made products now in force in 10 states. Also included are the texts of the Wagner-O'Day Act creating a Committee on Purchases of Blind-made Products, and the regulations set up for its administration.

Adult Education in Australia, by Fred Alexander. Occasional Papers, Fund for Adult Education, 595 Madison Avenue, New York 22, New York. 1953. 36 pp. Single copies free; quantity prices on application.

Analyzes the role of adult education in Australia through a consideration of the pre-war pattern, lessons from service education in World War II, and trends since the War. Offers eight conclusions, among them being: ". . . that adult education in Australia cannot pretend to be concerned, directly or indirectly, with any form of vocational or professional training."

Education Directory 1951–52, Part 4, Education Associations, by Margaret M. Butler, Office of Education. 62 pp. $.20. Copies available from the Superintendent of Documents, Government Printing Office, Washington 25, D. C.

This is a listing of national and regional associations, foundations, religious organizations, state associations, and international associations in the field of education. Lists names and addresses of headquarters and key personnel and names and frequency of issue of official publications.

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